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ABSTRACT

This volume of the Ohio Business Teacher contains articles on teaching business education, especially in the secondary schools, although some articles also include information on teaching business-related material to elementary school children and to adults. Eight of the articles concern classroom teaching techniques for the electronic office, with attention given to computers and word processing. Another two articles discuss curriculum needs and changes recommended for meeting the challenge of the future. The remaining articles focus on a variety of topics, such as business and marketing education, andragogy, the philosophy of business education, work values of students, classroom psychology, resume writing, shorthand, communication-management skills, and economic education resources for Ohio business teachers. Included in the articles are reviews of two books: "In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best-Run Companies," and "The One-Minute Manager." A section of information about the Ohio Business Teachers Association completes the issue. (KC)

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Manuscript Information for THE OHIO BUSINESS TEACHER

A Professional, Refereed Journal in Business Education

Manuscripts for THE OHIO BUSINESS TEACHER are now being accepted. All manuscripts must be submitted by December 1 for the next issue. Manuscripts must be typed (double-spaced) on 8½ by 11-inch paper using two-inch margins. Manuscripts may vary in length; however, manuscripts should approximate 2,500 words.

Topics of the manuscripts may be related to a variety of business education areas. For example, issues in business education, teaching and learning methods, research, curriculum, and administration are appropriate topics; however, articles should be suitable for general categories of theory, research, or practice. All art work (charts, diagrams, tables, etc.) should be camera-ready for duplication. Each piece of art must be on a separate sheet of paper. Use a numbering scheme, such as Fig. 1, Fig. 2 . . . , to show the location of the art in the manuscript.

The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA) should be used as a guide for footnotes and references. Manuscripts should be written with objectivity; constant use of the first person is not advisable.

All manuscripts will be reviewed and evaluated by a Manuscript Review Committee. This committee reserves the right to edit all manuscripts accepted for publication. Manuscripts not accepted for publication will be returned to the author or first-listed author on a coauthored manuscript. The Committee, under the direction of the Editor of Publications, consists of the following members: Editor of Publications, Assistant Editor of Publications, one secondary school teacher from Ohio, and one postsecondary school teacher from Ohio.

Manuscripts may be submitted by anyone. Attach to the manuscript your complete name, title, position, school or agency name and address, and telephone number with area code. Please note the biographical style used on the bottom of the first page of each article in this issue. Provide complete information for all authors of a coauthored manuscript. Secondary school teachers are particularly encouraged to submit manuscripts. Submit manuscripts for review at your earliest convenience but no later than December 1.

The publications staff looks forward to receiving your manuscript. If additional information is needed, please write or telephone the appropriate staff member shown below.

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Contents

1 **Editorial**

2 LARRY CASTERLINE
Ohio Business and Marketing Education: FY '83

8 DAVE HYSLOP
Curriculum Development: Meeting the Challenge of the Information Age

15 LUCY BAILEY
The Business Education Curriculum in Secondary Schools

21 DONALD M. DONIN
Electronic Technology in the Office

26 M. LEE GODDARD
The Content of a Word Processing Concepts Course

32 CHERYL MUELLER
Alternative Approaches to Traditional Word Processing Courses

36 BARBARA ELBERT
Keyboarding in Elementary Schools

40 LUCILLE E. WRIGHT
Cybernetics and ???

45 WILNA SWEARINGEN
Business Education Beyond the Classroom

49 MICHAEL W. GALBRAITH
Business Educators, Have You Tried Andragogy?

53 KENNETH MARTIN
Business Education and Pluralism: A Conversation

61 KATHERINE A. SCHAFER
Computer Terminology Common to Data Processing, Office Management, Records Management, and Word Processing

71 MAX HANSEL, RAY BERNARDI
Comparison of 45 Work Values Among Students
78 LARRY G. SIFERD
Economic Education Resources for Ohio Business Teachers
91 LILLIAN H. CHANEY
Are Your Classroom Practices Psychologically Sound?
95 EDNA COLE WARD, MARY EVELYN COLLINS
Utilization of Communication—Management Skills for Employee Training
101 CAROL A. JONES
Professional Growth is a Must for Secretaries
105 ROSE MARIANI COST, EVA POUND BICKLE
Preparing Business Students for the Automated Office
107 VICKIE JOHNSON STOUT, JAMES D. GOOD
Developing a Competitive Edge in Resumé Writing
113 ROSE KUCEYESKI
Evaluating Production Potential on Word Processing Equipment
116 LEROY A. BRENDEL
Shorthand: Time to Take Inventory
129 BONNIE ROE WHITE
Organizing the Shorthand Tape and Tape Library
138 CHARLES J. HAMED
A Sweet Method for Teaching the Prepaid Expense Adjustment
141 ALICE M. JACOBY
Book Reviews
145 LORRAINE RAY
Pausing for a Bit of Nostalgia

147 **The Ohio Business Teachers Association 1983–1984**
148 **Donna Smith Courtney 1983–1984 President**
149 **Richard Gore 1983–1984 President-Elect**
149 **1983–1984 Executive Board**
150 **The Ohio Business Teachers Association 1983–1984 Officers; Advisory Council: Past Presidents; Advisory Council: Members-At-Large; Support Personnel; OBTA Sectional Chairpersons**
151 **Presidents of The Ohio Business Teachers Association**
151 **Award Recipients of The Ohio Business Teachers Association**

Advertisers In This Issue

OBC Bliss College, Outside Back Cover
77 Business Education Films
90 Forkner Publishing Corporation
IFC Gregg Division/McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inside Front Cover
60 MPC Educational Publishers
128 Northwestern Business College
128 The Ohio Council of Private Colleges and Schools
IBC South-Western Publishing Company, Inside Back Cover

BUSINESS EDUCATION FOR EFFECTIVE LIVING
OBTA

Editorial

"... *for too many people*, education means doing the minimum work necessary for the moment, then coasting through life on ... *minimum requirements* .... *Minimum competency* examinations (now required in 37 states) fall short of what is needed, as the *minimum* tends to become the *maximum*, thus lowering educational standards for all. The existence of mediocrity permeates the entire educational system" (*A Nation at Risk*, 1983).

Business education must reflect contemporary concerns for excellence. Anything short of this is acquiescence to mediocrity, a mediocrity that leads to declining student enrollments and limited student success in initial job entry. Confront mediocrity in classrooms where teachers lack subject matter knowledge or lack knowledge of the existence of standards of excellence. What goes on in such classrooms is characterized by a hodgepodge of activities that do not simulate the demands of the business enterprise and the marketplace. Job placement and follow-up are haphazard arrangements that demonstrate little articulation between program offerings and projected labor supply and demand. These citations of mediocrity may be harsh, but they are real.

Excellence has implications for the individual learner, for schools and colleges, and for society in general. For the learner, excellence means reaching out beyond the boundary of current expectations to overcome personal limits and to recognize new levels of achievement. Schools and colleges must design programs that challenge students to set ever higher goals, aspirations, and expectations for themselves. Once geared to excellence rather than mediocrity, we will produce citizens who have the education, skill, and ability to respond to the challenges of change.

Ohio Business and Marketing Education: FY '83

Larry Casterline

We may reflect on the successes of the past; however, we must also examine the current status and be prepared for the future. Changes in the organizational structure of Business and Office Education in the State Department of Vocational Education can be illustrated with the phrase: "business is not *as usual."*

On November 28, 1983, Dr. Franklin B. Walter appointed Dr. Larry Casterline to the position of Assistant Director of Vocational Education, Business and Office Education. On January 2, 1984, Dr. Darrell L. Parks announced a reorganization of the Division of Vocational Education. As a result of Dr. Bernard C. Nye's retirement as Assistant Director of Distributive Education, Dr. Casterline assumed the administrative responsibility for both service areas. Thus the service area of Business and Office Education and the service area of Distributive Education were merged. As of February 1, 1984, the new name, Business and Marketing Education, was officially adopted. This merger immediately made Business and Marketing Education the second largest service area in vocational education, second to Trade and Industrial Education. The term "Office" was deleted from Business and Office and the term "Distributive" was replaced with "Marketing." Certification, club activities, supervision, PRIDE, and numerous other on-going, professional work remain the same. Editor

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JUST AS SURELY AS THE SEASONS of the year change, one can count on educational change. Business education has changed significantly. A new assistant director was appointed. The service area name has changed and grown dramatically due to reorganization in the Department of Vocational Education. This article, therefore, will briefly review FY '83 as well as project into FY '84.

The organizational and personnel changes will alter the direction of business education. As organizations reflect the philosophies and priorities of those responsible for making decisions, Business and Marketing Education will have a redefining of direction. *That direction is back to basics.* It is believed that any organization, program, or structure is only as strong as its foundation. In Business and Marketing Education, this includes the basics of a good vocational education program. These include:

Relevant Courses of Study

Courses of study that are based on occupational analysis and incorporate the elements necessary to reach anticipated terminal objectives for the students.

Active Advisory Committees

Active advisory committees that annually perform planned activities to insure that the program is valid and meets stated objectives.

Outstanding OOEA Programs

Ohio Office Education Association programs that provide leadership development opportunities for those youth needing and desiring such experiences to enter, succeed, and advance their chosen career.

Relevant Courses of Study

Courses of study are of great concern in business education. No one would consider traveling across country without following a map; therefore, one would not plan and direct a student's education without a well-defined course of study. This accountability begins by reviewing occupational analyses that identify skills needed in various occupations. After these are identified, the content is organized into a sequenced outline for the one- or two-year program. Duty blocks with written objectives are identified and further divided into task statements with objectives. Performance measures are written, instructional strategies are listed, and resources and evaluation measures are identified.

Courses of study based on the above elements provide the accountability for programs. These include objectives that are the basis for such instructional needs as resources, supplies, equipment, and student club activities. Not only do educators profess the need for courses of study, but the State Board of Education has also expressed its commitment for this accountability in the Elementary and Secondary Schools Minimum Standards 1983:

> Curriculum and instruction shall be characterized by systematic planning, articulation, implementation, and evaluation.
>
> (1) Courses of study shall establish the basis for curriculum and instruction
>
> (a) A course of study shall be adopted for each subject taught. Each course of study shall:
>
> (i) Comply with the provisions of section 3313.60 of the Revised Code;
>
> (ii) Be based on the philosophy of education and educational goals;
>
> (iii) Prescribe what is to be taught;
>
> (iv) Specify subject matter objectives;
>
> (v) Establish a scope and sequence;
>
> (vi) Provide a basis for pupil evaluation.

The "course of study shall be reviewed and updated at least once every five years." The Instructional Systems Design (ISD) Model utilized by vocational education in the State of Ohio meets and exceeds the above requirements. The Department of Vocational Education will be reviewing the course of study to recommend approval or further development.

A curriculum thrust in business education is the inclusion of office safety in the course of study. It is recommended that safety be treated as a duty block at the beginning of the junior year with specific safety hazards handled throughout the junior and senior years. An office safety manual, written by Charlotte Coomer, following the ISD model, should be available from the Instructional Materials Laboratory in late spring or early summer.

Active Advisory Committees

The second element of a good basic foundation for a program is the advisory committee. The value of an advisory committee cannot be overestimated. It must be composed of traditional and non-traditional members as well as representatives of any minority that constitutes a significant population in the community. The committee should perform annual activities such as review-

ing the two-year course outline, reviewing instructional materials and promotional materials for sex equity violations, reviewing follow-up statistics and PRIDE recommendations, and identifying and prioritizing needed equipment.

Often teachers feel the advisory committee should only make recommendations. This is not true. The advisory committee can confirm as well as document. For example, the minutes may record that the two-year course outline for this year appears to be inclusive; thus no recommendations are recorded. They may show other positive positions such as good follow-up statistics, good sex equity plans, and good club activities.

Minutes of the meeting must be maintained and readily available to interested individuals. The minutes are the documentation that you have maintained a planned procedure to review curriculum and to provide input concerning adding or deleting technologies unique to business education. Minutes are also documentation that you are exercising a planned program to eliminate sex bias in the program and to insure the recruitment of students in traditional and nontraditional programs. The results should be recorded in minutes that review instructional and promotional materials.

Outstanding OOEA Programs

The third basic concern is The Ohio Office Education Association. Without this, one cannot provide needed leadership activities. OOEA is the only club recognized by the Ohio Department of Vocational Education and has activities tailored to complement the Ohio programs.

Our strength in OOEA is working together and not splintering into various groups. Cooperative Office Education often has different clubs. If one remembers that the terminal objectives for IOE and COE are basically the same and that the difference is the method, one must conclude that both groups should work together.

OOEA is a well organized program with excellent leadership from William Dross at the State Department of Education. In future PRIDE reviews, other club activities, such as FBLA or COE clubs, will *not* be recognized as providing the necessary leadership. One may use elements of these to supplement the local program, but they should not be viewed as the leadership development element of a vocational business education program in Ohio.

The advisors of the Ohio Office Education Association have

found that using the vocational student organization has resulted in several benefits to the student and business program. Students have been able to find a much-needed identity and to improve their self-concept. The association provides ample opportunities to reward and to praise students for personal and professional accomplishments. The OOEA allows for a better relationship with business through professional activities. The successful OOEA provides ample public relations for the teacher, program, and students thus enabling the various publics to be aware of the program. This helps with recruitment and retention of students.

In closing, change has happened. We have a new name, but the program thrust remains basic. We must insure that our programs are well documented with appropriate records, advisory committee minutes, and courses of study. They must be accountable to the students, parents, administrators, and the occupational areas we represent. They must be organized in a manner to make maximum use of time and to provide youth the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to succeed in the world of business.

Note: Closing enrollments in Business and Office Education for FY' 82 and FY' 83 are shown on the following page.

BUSINESS AND OFFICE EDUCATION
CLOSING ENROLLMENTS—FY'82 and FY'83

OCCUPATIONAL FIELD OF PREPARATION:

Taxonomy	Occupation	High School (82)	High School (83)	Tech. (82)	Tech. (83)	P. T. Adult (82)	P. T. Adult (83)	F. T. Adult (82)	F. T. Adult (83)	TOTAL (82)	TOTAL (83)
14.0100	Accounting & Computing	3,642	3,786	1,181	1,120	3,947	3,674	184	219	8,954	8,799
14.0200	Business Data Processing	2,484	2,749	2,558	3,133	5,032	15,046	227	836	10,301	21,764
14.0300	Filing, Off. Machines & General Off.	7,786	7,098	301	--	1,748	1,778	1,436	1,519	11,271	10,395
14.0400	Information Communications	1,080	1,321	171	123	608	1,638	77	167	1,936	3,249
14.0500	Materials Support	27	42	--	--	114	63	--	--	141	105
14.0600	Personnel Training	39	42	--	--	92	286	--	--	131	328
14.0700	Stenographic Secretarial	8,182	7,645	1,674	1,749	4,176	3,666	790	804	14,822	13,864
14.0800	Administrative Management	113	227	173	647	982	1,059	--	--	1,868	1,933
14.0900	Typing & Related	2,293	2,043	--	--	8,393	7,954	665	451	11,351	10,478
14.9900	Miscellaneous O.E.	454	530	--	--	--	41	--	--	454	571
TOTALS		26,100	25,483	6,658	6,772	25,092	35,205	3,379	4,026	61,229	71,486
% Increase/Decrease		- 2.3%		+ 1.7%		+19.1%		+40.3%		+16.7%	

SUMMARY OF TEACHERS FOR 1983

Secondary	1470
Technical	333
Full-Time Adult	165
Part-Time Adult	785
Total Teachers	2753
	194 Double assignment (Sec./P.T. Adult)
Unduplicated TOTAL	2559

Curriculum Development: Meeting the Challenge of the Information Age

Dave Hyslop

AS A DISCIPLINE, business education is being challenged by a variety of significant changes reflecting technological advancements and trends throughout society. Daily, we hear and read about new innovations in office equipment, which manufacturers tell us is changing the nature of office work as we know it. The "information processing era" is certainly upon us and will force business educators to develop strategies and plans to meet inevitable technological advances in equipment and processing techniques.

The task facing our discipline is to create or redesign programs or curricula that encompass current office technology and to meet the needs of business and society by providing students with relevant and employable skills. Given the number and rapidity of changes occurring today, this task represents a considerable challenge. Yet, to remain a respected and viable profession, we must address this challenge and develop innovative programs that capture the interest of students, the community, and employers. Business educators will need to plan more than ever before to be flexible and receptive in their instructional responsibilities and to study and anticipate the impact of these significant changes on their existing programs.

Need for Curriculum Revision

Studies completed during the past several years have identified the most important issues facing business education. In relation to curriculum development, these issues can be grouped into the following categories:

DR. DAVE HYSLOP is an Associate Professor of Business Education at Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, OH.

- Developing innovative curricula that encompass current technology
- Providing effective instruction in the emerging areas of word/information processing, data processing, keyboarding, and other technological skills
- Maintaining a competitive advantage over programs offered outside business education, which contain overlapping or related content
- Improving funding levels for programs, equipment, and instructional materials
- Attracting more and better students into business education
- Improving the image and awareness of business education to others—the community, employers, and non-business education professionals

With the introduction of microcomputers, newer word processors, and integrated processing functions, we are aware that students must have the ability to understand and use current technology. If existing programs do not provide this experience (or do not adequately prepare the student for employment) then these programs will lose their attractiveness and interest to students.

Charge to Business Education

Perhaps the best way to illustrate and emphasize the "charge" to business educators is to summarize the thoughts and actions of leaders and professional organizations within our discipline. Accordingly, some significant actions taken during the past two years include:

1. Position papers prepared by the Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education, sponsored jointly by the Business Education Division, American Vocational Association; Delta Pi Epsilon; and the National Business Education Association. These include:

Information Processing in Business Education (1982), which outlines the emerging field of information processing and gives some key definitions and concepts students should know. Further, this paper presents three alternatives for integrating information processing into the curriculum: (1) including content within existing courses, (2) designing a specialized course to include all concepts, and (3) developing a full curriculum model in which a series of courses are available.

b. *Word Processing in Business Education* (1983), which stresses the need to have word processing concepts as a necessary and important part of all business education curricula. This paper states:

> We believe word processing concepts and applications should be integrated into existing business education courses. In addition, we believe that an introductory course(s) or a progressive series of courses should be offered to provide for occupational preparation.

c. *Business Data Processing in Business Education* (1983), which repeats the same emphasis as given in the word processing position paper presented earlier; i.e., data processing should be integrated into existing business education courses or new courses should be designed. Further, this statement presents a listing of all major competencies students should obtain through a data processing course or program.

2. A NASSP Curriculum Report entitled "Today's Business Education Programs," written by Dr. Calfrey Calhoun, University of Georgia, and published by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (1982). This report presents a brief summary of the significant societal forces affecting business education. In particular, it includes a course-by-course description of suggested content changes incorporating the latest trends. Dr. Calhoun stresses the need for integrating data processing and word processing concepts into our curriculum, and he also addresses the need for developing computer literacy skills.
3. A position statement prepared at the National Conference on Business Education in Tempe, Arizona, February 2–4, 1982. This conference was composed of 28 people representing educators, publishers, and manufacturers in business education. The focus of the conference and of the following statement revolved around the need to (1) determine how curricula programs can be designed to incorporate information processing concepts, (2) define the central or common core of the discipline, and (3) improve the image of business education. The following statement was approved and distributed to business educators throughout the country:

The number of information workers has been increasing at a rapid rate. Predictions are that by 1990 about 75 percent of the labor force will be engaged in information occupations.

Individuals need to prepare for effective functioning in employment situations in which information processing and information systems are the central focus of the duties and tasks performed. This identifies, therefore, a new thrust for business education which has been affirmed by leaders as a necessary direction.

Other functions of business education will continue to be included with this new thrust. They are: related and background business information, the particular knowledge and skills needed to live successfully in a business-oriented society, marketing and distribution, and business teacher preparation (preservice and inservice).

It remains for interested parties, such as curriculum builders, association personnel, and others, to develop the appropriate course structure, class levels, and other specifics necessary to implement this new thrust.

4. An article in *Business Education Forum* (November 1983) entitled "Future Directions and Recommended Actions for Business Education: A Report by the NBEA Task Force on New Concepts and Strategies for Business Education." This article gives a number of important recommendations for adapting business education curricula to the "information age." These recommendations are divided into course areas and then formulated by educational levels (elementary, middle school, high school, two-year postsecondary, and four-year postsecondary). In relation to curriculum development, the recommendations provide an excellent statement of student competencies that should be covered in the curriculum/program content.
5. Resolutions by several state associations and professional organizations regarding the role of business education in information/word processing, keyboarding, office technology, and computer literacy. Several state organizations have adopted resolutions similar to the following one approved by the California Business Education Association in 1982:

COMPUTER LITERACY RESOLUTION

WHEREAS computer literacy may be defined as a level of acquaintance with computer applications which the average citizen will need for the conduct of normal professional and personal matters, and

WHEREAS computer systems are having an increasingly global influence in all occupational areas and in our personal lives, and

WHEREAS several national studies have called for computer literate high school graduates, and
WHEREAS business educators have many years of experience and training in areas in which computers are impacting our lives such as retailing, banking, personal finance, bookkeeping and accounting, business machines, information retrieval, word processing, and consumer applications.
BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED THAT:

1. All computer literacy courses and units should be taught within the business department in middle schools and high schools.
2. All school site and central office administrators should assign the implementation of general education computer literacy courses for middle school and high school students to business educators.
3. All keyboarding skill development, required for the operation of keyboard controlled equipment, should be assigned to business educators certified in teaching of typewriting and office machines at the p[illegible]school through university levels.
4. All bus[illegible] education departments shall integrate the use of microcomputer and/or computer terminals in all courses in the business education curriculum in order to familiarize students with the computer as a professional and personal tool and better prepare the student for the world today, as well as the future.
5. Funds shall be budgeted for the acquisition of computer hardware and software for use in the computer literacy course and related business subjects, with the same consideration as is now given the acquisition of traditional instructional equipment.
6. Business teacher training institutions shall require future business teachers to complete course work in introduction to computers and data processing and/or methods of teaching data processing.

These resolutions are an effective means of publicizing the need for business education programs to unify their efforts in implementing specific concepts into the curricula. Several other states are currently working on developing position statements or resolutions for the areas of keyboarding, information processing, and communication skills.

Other reports will shortly be forthcoming giving even more guidance as to the need for business education to address technological innovations and revitalize existing curricula. For example, a National Business Education Association Task Force on Critical Issues in Business Education is conducting a national survey to identify the relative importance of the following concerns:

1. Improving the image of business education (both within the profession and outside business education)
2. Developing innovative curricula that encompass current technology

3. Improving the role and service of professional organizations
4. Developing better business teacher education programs
5. Increasing and maintaining enrollments in business education programs
6. Improving funding levels
7. Broadening the amount and quality of research

The results of this study will be published in national business education journals and presented at conferences or conventions throughout the country.

Implementing Curriculum Revision

Identifying current trends and curriculum concerns and implementing techniques to strengthen business education curricula are, obviously, two separate tasks; however, the first step has been completed; we have identified and publicized the most significant factors affecting the growth and vitality of business education. Our research, publications, and professional organizations are providing the necessary foundation upon which the revitalization of curricula can proceed.

The next step is for business educators to study and plan appropriate strategies through which effective curricula can be determined and implemented. Some suggested actions that can be accomplished include:

1. Studying present business education curricula and completing an objective, in-depth review of the strengths and weaknesses of existing programs and curricula, along with assessing how the curricula are meeting the needs of students, employers, and society. This study can be an excellent starting point upon which to rally support among business educators in the individual school setting and to develop greater coordination of the goals and purposes of all areas of business education.
2. Working with the community, businesses, equipment manufacturers, publishers, and other significant groups outside education to assess the state of the art in office technology and to encourage support and recognition of business education. Traditional advisory committees provide an excellent opportunity to gain this support; however, additional ad hoc committees or special task forces may be necessary to coordinate the support and enthusiasm needed for major curriculum redesign.
3. Selling the value of and need for business education programs at each educational level, particularly to those local

administrative or non-business education personnel who possess some degree of control over the "life or death" of business education. Budget administrators, who approve funding for programs, and school curriculum directors or committees, who have approval power over curriculum proposals, should be informed of the service that business education has provided, and can continue to provide, to society. Further, within every educational level there is a person who, by nature of his/her position or personal power, exercises a high degree of leadership and whose approval or support may be critical if curricula proposals are to be accepted.

In summary, curriculum development represents a significant challenge to our profession, and the significance and pace of technological trends affecting the discipline require that positive action be taken as quickly as possible. Because of the widespread acceptance of, and need for, information processing today, our discipline has an excellent opportunity to serve in a leadership role and to gain considerable success and recognition, but we must be able to develop and implement programs that meet these challenges.

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The Business Education Curriculum in Secondary Schools

Lucy Bailey

What is Curriculum?

The word curriculum comes from a Latin root meaning racecourse (Zais, 1976). A school's curriculum, therefore, has been seen by many to be the course that students must follow to reach the finish line. Curriculum, however, entails much more than a list of courses offered by a school. Some educators define the concept of curriculum as the content of the particular courses offered.

A broader definition, though, is given by many specialists. Krug (1956, p. 4) views curriculum as "all the means employed by the school to provide students with the opportunities for desirable learning experiences."

There are, however, many more definitions of curriculum. Some are very broad, and some very narrow. For the purpose of this article, curriculum will be simplistically defined as "what shall be taught, how it shall be taught and at what level, and who shall be taught (Nanassy, 1977, p. 119)."

Historical View of the Business Education Curriculum

As high schools began to offer more business education courses, two distinct programs were developed: bookkeeping and stenography. In the bookkeeping program, students were required to take bookkeeping, arithmetic, penmanship, and business law. In stenography, students took shorthand, typing, business letter writing, and spelling. Because its inflexibility caused many failures, the business education curriculum was gradually changed to account for individual differences and interests of its students. Programs in the sales and clerical areas were added (Nanassy, 1977).

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In 1903, a committee appointed by the National Education Association (NEA) published a report recommending a four-year course of business training in secondary schools. Another NEA report, published in 1915, recommended two curricula in business education: accounting and stenography. A third NEA publication, 1919, recommended differentiated programs for boys and girls, broadening the stenographic curriculum, and adding a program for careers in sales (Wanous, 1957).

The most significant of these early reports on business education was the plan proposed by the Federal Board for Vocational Education, headed by Frederick G. Nichols. This report recommended specialization early in the business education program and technical training toward the end. While the major thrust of this plan has been replaced in today's secondary schools, it did help to promote the idea of specialization (Nanassy, 1977).

After the Depression in the 1930s, the subject matter in the business education curriculum became simplified—perhaps even oversimplified. New courses were developed with concrete, instead of abstract, subject matter. After the launching of Sputnik in 1957, however, schools returned to the more traditional view of curriculum (Nanassy, 1977).

Recent Developments in the Business Education Curriculum

With the passage of the Vocational Education Act in 1963, federal money was poured into the "vocational" part of the business education curriculum. In Ohio, this has led to block programs with an office-like atmosphere, much modern equipment, and plenty of teaching materials on the one hand, and a floundering of the "non-vocational" business curriculum on the other hand. While this trend is beginning to reverse itself, many schools still have trouble replacing 10–15 year old machines in Typing I, outdated textbooks in general business, and supplemental materials for all business courses.

Another recent development in the business education curriculum has been the decline in course offerings. Teachers are lured to the block programs by the equipment and other extras and no longer want to teach many of the one-period content courses. For example, Business English has been turned over to the English Department (if it is offered at all); Consumer Education may be taught by teachers from social studies or home economics, and Business Arithmetic has become part of the Mathematics Department. This, too, may be reversing itself. The numerous vo-

cational programs are beginning to vie for the same students, and many programs are having problems recruiting the minimum number necessary under state guidelines. Schools may begin to drop some of these programs from their offerings, and students may return to the traditional "non-vocational" courses.

With the specialization of vocational programs, especially in career centers and vocational schools, many students are being trained for a very narrow—and often dead-end—occupation. Some vocational educators are now encouraging the "cluster concept" with regard to curriculum in business education. Using this plan, students would complete a vocational program and be qualified for "employment in a cluster or group of related occupations" (Nanassy, 1977, p. 369). In our mobile society, this also prepares students to change jobs or careers.

Basic Methods of Curriculum Organization

Subject-centered curriculum. The subject-centered design is the oldest and most widely used method of organization. The curriculum is centered on subjects "with each subject standing on its individual merits and being taught as a discrete body of knowledge" (Shoemaker, 1979, p. 41). Advantages of this method are: (1) it is easy to administer, (2) teachers are comfortable with it, and (3) textbooks are organized by subjects. Traditional, non-vocational business education courses are organized using this method. Each course is taught separately with little integration between courses. Students may not learn the relationship between accounting and economics, for example.

Correlated curriculum. In a correlated curriculum, instruction is again based on content, but teachers make an effort to correlate their courses by teaching similar or related concepts at the same time (Zais, 1976). For example, the Business English teacher may do a unit on writing letters of application while the Typing II class is typing resumes.

Integrated curriculum. This organizational plan is characterized by one teacher teaching two different content areas within a specified period of time. The teacher has the responsibility of covering both subjects but has the freedom to flow from one subject to the other (Shoemaker, 1979).

Core curriculum. This curriculum plan revolves around a center point. All the psychomotor, cognitive, and affective program content is organized on that core or center point. Shoemaker (1979, p. 42) states:

It is strongly recommended that the core curriculum concept serve as the basis for the curriculum organization for vocational education. The occupational goal of the student becomes the center point for the program; and all of the skill, technical knowledge, discipline-related instruction, and development of work habits and attitudes are addressed to that goal.

Outside Effects on Curriculum

In addition to the decisions that need to be made concerning the method of organization, there are many outside influences that affect the business education curriculum.

Private accrediting agencies. In this part of the country, the North Central Association makes regular, on-site visits and reports on their committee's findings. These reports are very specific and contain the value judgments of the committee members. Additionally, they carry a lot of weight since negative findings can lead to a school's loss of accreditation.

Private testing agencies. Schools that use standardized tests use the test results to make adjustments to curricula. An example of a private testing agency is the Educational Testing Service, whose College Board tests are taken by over one million students each year.

State departments of education. Most states mandate some courses be included in a school's curriculum (e.g. physical education). In addition, state funding is often affected by curriculum.

Teacher associations of special subjects. Groups of teachers (often affiliated with NEA) provide an effective lobby for determining a local curriculum policy. Recently these have been in non-academic areas such as vocational and home economics education.

Textbook publishers. Textbook publishers have a large influence on curriculum in general. Since most schools operate with a subject- (or content-) centered curriculum, the textbook itself becomes the curriculum. In business education, the decision to keep shorthand in the school offerings may be greatly influenced by publishers.

Federal government. Funding from the federal government for vocational business education has had an enormous effect on curriculum. Schools have added programs that brought in money and have let traditional programs deteriorate. Another influence on curriculum from the federal government is the current report, "A Nation at Risk," by the National Commission on Excellence in Education. The effects of this report will be felt throughout the next decade.

Societal Effects on Curriculum

Aside from the factors listed above, our society in general plays a large role in shaping a school's curriculum. (Discrimination, both racial and sexual, has been perpetuated in our schools through textbooks and learning materials.) There have been many dynamic changes and alterations in our society in the past 20 years. Some of the ones that affect the business education curriculum are:

The women's movement. The women's movement has begun to cause a change in how society views the sex roles of office occupations. Women no longer have only secretarial occupations or teaching as career choices. Likewise, men now have secretarial and clerical careers as options and should be encouraged to enter business education programs.

Technology. The explosion of technological developments has transformed the business office into a modern, computer-based system for handling information. This has led to a call for instruction in computer literacy. The report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education recommends one semester of computer science for all secondary students.

Decline of family structure. With more mothers joining the work force and the increased number of one-parent families, schools are finding it necessary to assume more and more responsibility in educating the total person. Not only has sex education been added to the curriculum, but values and ethics are also part of a school program. In business education, teachers need to stress the importance of the American work ethic (Policies Commission, 1959–79).

Labor Market. Business educators use statistics on current and future labor market requirements to develop and modify vocational programs. By using this information to keep programs up to date, students will be prepared to enter the job market upon graduation.

Conclusion

There are three important parts of the learning process: the student, the teacher, and the curriculum. In the past, curriculum has remained relatively static. Educators, however, need to monitor curriculum and to be ready to implement changes in it. A more dynamic curriculum will help ensure an education that is responsive to the needs of our students.

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Electronic Technology in the Office

Donald M. Donin

In the 1970s, office educators concerned themselves with incorporating word processing into their curricula. In the 1980s, these educators will extend their curricula beyond word processing to encompass new electronic office technologies and applications—microcomputers, satellite-based communications systems, electronic mail, local and long-range distance networks, speech recognition, speech synthesis, multifunction workstations, electronic databases, optical character recognition, natural-language programming software, and voice mail. Let's look at the growth of this new office technology and weigh its implications for office education.

Increase in Electronic Work Stations

The electronic office equipment industry has been growing at the rate of 20 percent a year (Gilder, 1982). One study estimated that there are already about 2.5 million electronic work stations in white collar settings and predicted that the number will grow to 17.5 million by 1990 (Bergman, 1982). Another study forecasts that the usage of CRT terminals will increase from one terminal for every twenty desks in 1981 to one terminal for every three desks by the end of the decade ("400 Percent Growth," 1981). "By the year 2010, there will be one video display terminal for every office employee" (Porter, 1982, p. 36).

Microcomputer technology will have a tremendous impact upon the office curricula in the eighties. These microcomputers range in size from those small enough to hold in the hand to desktop size, but they function in the same way as a large computer

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(Osborne & Bunnell, 1982). Their prices are generally under $10,000. In 1982, a computer costing less than $100 was introduced by the makers of the famous Timex watch. This microcomputer, known as the Timex Sinclair 1000, is a precursor of what is coming—easy to use, low-cost computers.

In 1983, the weekly newsmagazine, *Time*, acknowledged the importance of this trend, the proliferation of small computers. *Time's* editors bypassed 1982's human newsmakers to declare the computer "Machine of the Year." "The Computer Moves In," *Time's* cover proclaimed, explaining inside, "By the millions, it is beeping its way into offices, schools, and homes" (Friedrich, 1983, p. 14). It's inevitable: as advanced technology brings prices down, automation will extend to virtually every workplace—and probably every home.

Office Workers' Use of Computers

Most microcomputers are equipped not only to perform the usual data processing functions but also word processing. Likewise, manufacturers of dedicated word processors are introducing software that will enhance their word processors with the intelligence to perform data processing. The day of the dedicated word processor, albeit short-lived, is swiftly coming to an end. "Word processing systems used solely for word processing apparently are going the way of Model T Fords" (Fiorvanta, 1982, p. 1).

Along with the technological advances in hardware are coming advances in computer software. The trend is toward the development of "user friendly" programs. These interface with the user in what is called "natural language." Natural-language software enables "unsophisticated end-users to operate computers and access databases simply by typing in their requests using everyday English" (Kozma, 1982, p. 1). Voice-recognition technology will make programming even easier by allowing the user "to program and use a personal computer by voice command without the use of a keyboard" ("In the Industry," 1982, p. 4).

"Off-the-shelf" programs provide additional access to the powers of the computer. A growing number of publishers offer a bewildering array of pre-programmed software packages available for use on microcomputers. One may purchase "off-the-shelf" computer programs to perform such varied tasks as accounting, filing, medical record keeping, legal billing, student record keeping, and, let us not forget, playing games such as Pac-Man and E. T.

Natural-language programming and retrieval, the availability of "off-the-shelf" software, and "small, cheap machines, no longer requiring a specially trained computer priesthood, will soon be as omnipresent as the typewriter" (Toffler, 1982, p. 10). This is evidenced by the fast-growing rate that computer stores are opening in cities throughout the country. Even department stores now have departments devoted to the sale of computers, "off-the-shelf" programs, and computer accessories.

Networks Link Electronic Equipment

These systems and other electronic equipment such as voice-message systems, "intelligent" copiers, optical character readers, and phototypesetting will be linked together by local and long-distance networks. A network can be conceptualized as a switching device connecting the various pieces of equipment together and allowing them to communicate in much the same way as a telephone company office provides the switches that allow the telephones within its system to communicate with each other. In addition, a technology known as a "gateway" will allow local networks to interface with each other. As John J. Connell (1982) explains:

> The network concept postulates that as time goes on, all the powers of modern office technologies will be available to all office personnel in all work locations, wherever it is possible to make an interconnection with the network. No longer is technological power available only to the technologists. Instead, every office worker will have at his or her fingertips an increasingly powerful array of capabilities, tools to help improve job performance.
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> . . . the future calls for mastery of not only one but a number of technologies, operating under the umbrella of the network. The dominant technology is not data processing, or word processing, or any of today's technologies. Rather the dominant technology is the network. Other technologies are subordinate to it (p. 53).

The office of the 1980's and beyond, for which we are preparing our students, is very different from the office in which most of us were trained to work. Our students will be expected to work with, and to be at ease with, electronic office equipment that is interconnected through networks.

The location of the office may also change. "Using the gateway technique and presently available hardware, word processing and other functions could become the new cottage industry simply by locating a work station in an individual's home" (Holtzman, 1982, p. 80). Office workers will have access to large computerized databases from which they can file and retrieve infor-

mation. These databases can be located within the individual's company or may be external. Office workers will use computer terminals to receive and transmit information electronically rather than using the mails. Information will be exchanged within split seconds. The office will have large amounts of information available through subscribing to database services.

A law firm, for instance, need no longer maintain its own private library of law books but may subscribe to a specialized service, such as Lexis and Westlaw, and do electronic searches of pertinent cases by entering key words and phrases. The cases in which these search terms appear will be transmitted to the computer terminal in the lawyer's office for his or her approval. If desired, the terminal may be commanded to produce hard copies of all or selected portions of this information. The secretary will play a role in obtaining this information. Likewise, secretaries within the various specialties will be involved in electronically obtaining information from databases. *Time's* (Friedrich, 1983, p. 17) year-end story notes that 1,450 databases (electronic files from which data may be retrieved) now exist in the United States.

One thing is sure: word processing, data processing, electronic mail, information storage and retrieval, chart preparation and other graphics, filing, and other functions will be performed on multi-function, easy-to-use desk-top microcomputers. These microcomputers will have easy-to-use "natural language" commands and eventually will be available to every office worker.

Summary and Implications

Never before in the history of business education have changes in technology been so rapid and seemingly infinite. The few technological advancements of the past, such as the transition from manual to electric typewriters, appear insignificant when compared to the mammoth leaps in technology that have entered business offices today.

Many of the technologies mentioned in this article—electronic mail, electronic networks, speech recognition, speech synthesis, multifunction workstations, electronic databases, and voice mail—were unknown to most business educators just a few short years ago. Today, these terms are commonplace in our journals, textbooks, and workshops.

Business education courses are about to change significantly. Keyboarding and business writing courses will be taught on computers. The business writing course will include a unit on electronic mail, as well as instruction and practice in using electronic

databases for business-report data gathering, and instruction and practice in preparing computer graphics for inclusion in the business report. The secretarial/office practice course will integrate previously learned technologies and the traditional secretarial skills in addition to new topics such as telephone and reception skills. Among the new electronic office automation skills taught will be calendaring, voice message systems, and record keeping. The previously developed skills, including but not limited to computer graphics, database searches, storing and retrieving information, and word processing, will be further developed.

Discrete courses in word/information processing will eventually cease to exist. The content of these courses will be subsumed under the keyboarding, business writing, and secretarial/office practice courses.

Business education is in the midst of a revolution. We have seized, and we will continue to seize, every opportunity to update our curricular and teaching skills to be in tune with the dictates of electronic office technology. This is evidenced by the content of our workshops and journals, which abound with topics concerning the new technology.

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The Content of a Word Processing Concepts Course

M. Lee Goddard

WORD PROCESSORS ARE RAPIDLY becoming standard equipment in business offices throughout the country, and word processing courses are becoming an accepted part of the business curriculum. In April 1982, Gregg/McGraw-Hill Book Company conducted two surveys on word processing—one for high schools and one for post-secondary institutions—to determine how education is coping with office technology. Of the 200 high schools contacted, 68 percent were teaching word processing, and 19 percent were planning to start teaching it within two years. Most of the secondary schools were integrating word processing in other business education courses rather than offering a separate word processing course. Word processing at the post-secondary level was even more prevalent, with only three percent of the 414 institutions surveyed not offering or planning to offer it. Sixty-eight percent of the post-secondary institutions that were offering word processing were providing a separate word processing course.

Whether word processing is offered by integrating it with other courses, or as a separate course, there is an emerging body of word processing concepts that students should understand in order to be acquainted with the terminology, technology, and career opportunities that await them. This article, therefore, is concerned with the content of a word processing concepts course.

Course Content for a Word Processing Concepts Course

Brief History and Current Status of Word Processing. An introduction to the course should include tracing the history and development of word processing through the use of manual, mechanical, and automated methods of handling information. A

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number of films are now available that depict technological advancement in offices and provide a glimpse of things to come. Since many students will be familiar only with word processing equipment, it is important that they understand the three components of the word processing triangle: people, procedures, and equipment. A brief update on some of the changes that brought about the demise of the traditional secretary and some discussion of the advent of word processing might also be included in the introduction.

Word Processing Terminology. The study of word processing entails the understanding of a large number of new terms; however, an early overdose of word processing terminology may overwhelm or confuse students. Perhaps the most logical approach is to introduce students to generic terms and concepts, and present more technical terms when they can be related to the concepts or equipment being discussed. Most textbooks have a glossary of terms at the end of each chapter or at the back of the text. The teacher should make frequent references to the glossary and urge students to use the terminology in class discussions and written assignments.

Organizational Structures for Word Processing and Administrative Support Centers. An understanding of the organizational structures for both word processing and administrative support services should be presented early in the course, so that students may learn the kinds of activities performed in each of the centers and the relative advantages and disadvantages of the different organizational structures. Centralized, decentralized, hybrid, and the work group or cluster concept are the more common organizational plans that should be discussed.

Word Processing Personnel. Part of the new terminology in word processing is concerned with the numerous new job titles, and at this point, students should learn some of the more common job titles such as word processor, correspondence secretary, supervisor, proofreader, systems and equipment analyst, and word processing manager. An understanding of the education and experience requirements, as well as the responsibilities of these new personnel, is of interest to students since many of them will be thinking about preparing for these positions. A brief discussion of administrative secretaries, and other administrative support personnel, may be included at this time.

Word Processing Cycle. The word processing cycle is best understood by analyzing the steps involved in processing docu-

ments such as letters, memos, and reports. The five components in the cycle include input/document creation, processing/word processing equipment, output/reprographics, distribution/communication, and storage/retrieval.

Input/document creation involves introducing the common forms of input used in word processing such as longhand, shorthand, typed copy, and machine dictation. The relative merits of each of these forms of input should be discussed with emphasis placed on productivity and cost factors. Dictation equipment should be demonstrated, and dictation techniques should be fully explored. Opportunities for machine dictation should be offered in order to provide an element of realism for the students.

Processing/word processing equipment is the second component in the word processing cycle and involves the use of electronic typewriters and/or text editors and transcribing machines. Because of the limited number of pieces of equipment available in many classrooms, a rotation plan may be needed to provide specific practice times for all students. Keyboarding skills should be developed by preparing letters, memos, stored form letters with variable material, and letters and reports assembled from stored paragraphs. Students should be given an opportunity to develop transcription skills using machine dictation from commercially prepared cassettes or from machine dictation originated by students in the class.

The third component in the word processing cycle is concerned with output/reprographics, which involves the preparation of copies of processed materials. Photocopying, repetitive printing, and phototypesetting, as well as collating and binding, should be incorporated in this unit.

The next phase of the word processing cycle is distribution/communication—the routing of information to the receiver. Distribution systems such as E-COM (Electronic Computer Originated Mail), used by the U.S. Postal Service, electronic communications, such as Telex and TWX, communicating word processors, computer-based message systems, electronic audio communications, and teleconferencing should all be considered in terms of their relative advantages and disadvantages.

The last stage in the word processing cycle is storage/retrieval, which involves storing and recalling the documents that have been produced. Practice should be provided in storing and retrieving both hard copy and magnetic media; however, equipment available and the emphasis placed on records management in other

courses will determine how much emphasis should be placed on storage and retrieval in word processing.

Language Arts Skills. Language arts skills are essential to the proper functioning of an electronic office. Employers, more than ever before, are demanding that word processing personnel possess language arts skills—spelling, punctuation, grammar, and proofreading. Teachers can no longer assume that students possess these skills when they enroll in word processing; instead, teachers must integrate the development of these skills into every phase of the word processing course. When work that has been typed or displayed on a visual screen is edited by students, students must be encouraged to locate and correct all the errors. Only through stressing the importance of accuracy and through concentrated, intensive proofreading practice will students develop their language arts skills.

Human Aspects of Word Processing. The electronic office has automated many of the business transactions that once involved numerous personal interactions. Word processing reduces the repetitious, tedious, and routine office activities and provides opportunities for office workers to use their creative, decision-making abilities in meeting daily challenges. The mutually dependent relationship that existed between the boss and traditional secretary is rapidly disappearing since office functions are being performed by word processing specialists who are responsible to many bosses whom they may or may not know personally. This specialization has solved some of the human problems related to motivation, has increased opportunities to exercise initiative and creativity, has opened new career paths, and has provided self-fulfillment through more challenging work; however, many of the problems concerned with human relationships still exist today. Regardless of how sophisticated the computerized system may be, its effectiveness depends on its being accepted and utilized by people. Students need to understand that human relationships are still vital in making office systems perform properly.

Manuals for Word Processing. Since word processing centers require different procedures from those in the traditional office, specific procedures need to be developed to make proper use of the system. Procedures manuals should be organized around the people who will be using them—principals/originators, document production specialists/correspondence secretaries, and administrative support specialists/administrative secretaries. The originator's manual provides principals with the specific steps that

must be followed to have their work completed and provides individual manuals for correspondence secretaries and administrative support specialists. The manual for correspondence secretaries provides the procedures required to produce all kinds of documents prepared in the word processing center. All the nontyping functions performed by the administrative support specialists are outlined in the administrative support services manual.

Through developing and using word processing manuals, students will be able to understand that procedures are essential if work is to flow smoothly through the various stages of the word processing cycle: creation, processing, output, distribution, and storage.

Work Measurement/Production Standards. Increased office productivity is now a top priority of American management since the office promises to provide better results per dollar spent than any other activity. With the use of word processing, work measurement in the office is finally a reality, since office performance can be measured by counting lines, pages, and projects and by determining the turn-around time for various kinds of typed documents. Work measurement provides management with important information for making decisions about equipment purchases, staff changes, and budgeting. Problems relating to inefficient operation can be identified, and appropriate steps can be taken to correct them. Work measurement has also made it possible to bill individual departments for work done by service departments such as word processing. As a result of work measurement, production standards are beginning to evolve for word processing personnel. Standards, in the form of a certain number of lines or pages, today are used by some organizations for salary and promotion decisions. An understanding of the way performance is measured and an understanding of the expectations of word processing personnel are essential for students who are preparing for a career in this new field.

Career Opportunities and Professional Growth. Word processing promises to offer career opportunities that range from entry-level through supervisory positions and above. Unlike the traditional office, where upward mobility is tied to the manager's ability to perform, the upward mobility of word processing personnel is related to knowledge, competencies, and skills. Through understanding job titles and requirements, students become aware

of the opportunities for promotion and advancement in the field of word processing.

Students should also be introduced to publications of word processing organizations and to the many professional services they provide such as conferences, workshops, seminars, and field trips. The importance of professional growth for meeting the challenges of the new office technologies must be clearly understood if students are to take advantage of the new career opportunities awaiting them.

Summary

Word processing is rapidly becoming an integral part of the business education curriculum at both the secondary and post-secondary levels as government, business, and industry mandate its utilization. While word processing concepts will probably continue to be incorporated in other business education courses at the secondary level, we can expect post-secondary institutions to offer a separate concepts course as a foundation for a series of word processing courses that will prepare students for supervisory and managerial positions in the new word processing environment.

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Alternative Approaches to Traditional Word Processing Courses

Cheryl Mueller

ARE YOUR ENROLLMENTS in word processing courses increasing? Do you need more equipment to provide students with sufficient hands-on training? If your answer to both questions is *yes*, then perhaps you need to investigate alternative approaches to teaching word processing courses.

In their zest and zeal to offer training in word processing, many institutions develop the courses around traditional approaches—approaches that have proven very successful in teaching most business courses; however, some of these methods may not be the best ones for teaching the new technology.

I would like to offer some suggestions for you to consider as you recognize needs for changing your business programs to incorporate word processing. The two options I propose are: (1) incorporating word processing into existing curricula and (2) providing a core of word processing courses as a separate discipline.

First, I would like to emphasize that there is a definite need for specialized equipment. Although it is possible to teach some skills needed by word processing personnel without equipment (for example, typing, grammar, letter writing), it is not possible to properly teach the concepts and applications without combining skills with hands-on experience on the dedicated word processor, the microcomputer, or the personal computer. Following are two outlines for these proposed options:

Option No. 1. Incorporating Word Processing into Existing Curricula. A concepts course or unit can be taught alone or in a secretarial office procedures class. This course introduces the definition of word processing and its specialized functions and

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terminology. The student should be able to apply terms such as inserting, deleting, storing, replacing, moving, and completing forms using such basic equipment as memory typewriters (as long as they are still operable, they serve this function well), electronic typewriters, and mag card typewriters. If sophisticated equipment is available, that is even better. Students should be rotated through the various pieces of equipment as time permits.

In a typing (or keyboarding) class, students may be taught to backspace and strike over, a real function in our computer society. Although this is a painful concession to typing teachers, it, nevertheless, is how a student changes input on a computer.

In a dictation/transcription class, a teacher may dictate paragraphs and then instruct the students to create letters from the different paragraphs. This is a variation of the traditional kind of dictation/transcription class.

In machine transcription, an instructor may use tapes, which contain form letters, that instruct students to create libraries of paragraphs and to use the paragraphs to send out "boilerplate" letters, similar to those used in word processing. They can also input a form letter that can be used as a form fill-in exercise or as a document to be merged with a mailing list.

In business communications courses, students can spend time learning to dictate. Several class periods spent on this will be just as valuable as covering "another" unit on letter writing. Or if a computer is available, electronic mail can be simulated for the students to observe.

Field trips to local industry or vendors are invaluable. Possibilities include visits to the word processing center of a large firm, hospital, newspaper, or university. Seeing something in operation is always more valuable and enlightening than just hearing about it.

Vendors are cooperative in talking to classes about the evolution of the computer and the changes coming in the future. Allowing students to see a variety of word processing equipment makes them more informed consumers, as well as more valuable prospective employees.

Option No. 2. Core Courses in Word Processing. This second option is more progressive; it involves developing separate, unique courses in word processing. There are four courses I would like to suggest:

An Introduction to Word Processing Concepts course can be a combination of lecture and laboratory work. Students spend

three hours a week in a structured classroom setting listening to lectures covering the word processing textbook. Then, once a week in a two-hour lab period students become acquainted with word processing equipment. This can be dedicated equipment or a microcomputer using word processing software. It is important to have students complete a series of projects consisting of preliminary exercises that teach the basics: inputting, correcting, deleting, inserting, replacing, moving, storing, recalling, and printing. Later, they learn more sophisticated functions such as forms fill-in, mail merge, and database creation. Some additional functions, such as global search, replace, and creation of temporary phrases, may be included if time permits.

Once a student has completed this course, he or she is able to transfer this generic knowledge of word processing to other types of equipment. The important thing to note here is that transfer learning should be emphasized, not specific equipment.

In the next course in the sequence, a different type of instruction is employed—group instruction. Because most institutions have a limited number of terminals, group instruction is a viable method. Three or four students can easily be assigned to one terminal during a class period, with each group having assigned daily tasks to complete. There are several important things to be noted in this kind of situation. First, everyone must participate equally in all phases of the production. Second, individual hands-on final exams must be given to ensure that each student has learned the applications. This exam must be a large percentage of the student's final grade. Third, students must learn to cooperate with one another and to confront differences of opinion when they occur. Group instruction is an excellent device to help our students develop good human relations skills. Finally, students begin to familiarize themselves with documentation for their equipment. This, in itself, is very important as they enter the business world in our computer-oriented society. Who knows what kinds of new equipment they will have to learn throughout their business careers?

The third course in this word processing core of courses is one which instructs the student to use word processing software on a mainframe and/or a microcomputer. Many packages are available for all types of computer equipment. With the proliferation and the low price of microcomputers, our students are most certainly going to encounter this kind of application as they begin working.

The last course to be included is word processing management. Students today, more than ever before, need to understand how to organize, train, manage, and motivate others. This course should provide them with these skills. In addition, a unit might be included on producing documents on the various types of equipment they have used in the other word processing courses. This unit would serve as a review and as a decision-making exercise. They need to ask themselves: "What kind of equipment performs each application most efficiently?" This would help them make intelligent decisions when they are confronted with situations in the business office.

Both of these options would require restructuring of our thinking and our curricula and would probably necessitate purchasing additional equipment. If we want to continue providing our students with the training they need to meet the challenges of this technologically advanced society, we must accept change. Change must be welcomed in our business departments and in our business colleges. It is not a visitor; it is a new member of the family.

Keyboarding in Elementary Schools

Barbara Elbert

WE ARE LIVING in an electronic revolution. Information is rapidly becoming the most important product of our economy. The computer-related demand for keyboarding skills will increase, and schools must plan for instruction accordingly.

Linda Spellman, computer consultant/University of Toledo instructor, when asked the question of what our schools should be teaching to future employees, listed:

1. familiarity with computers so they're not afraid,
2. introduction at grades 6–8, and
3. typing as the most basic skill.

She noted that some school districts are teaching typing on computer keyboards, combining the two studies.

State of the Art

The number of computer-related applications has grown dramatically: executives send and receive memos, sales personnel key-in and call-up specific information, stock room personnel keep track of inventories, secretaries use word processing. Personal use of the microcomputer in the home is becoming commonplace. The list of computer applications is endless and will continue to grow as new hardware and software are available.

Concern

At all grade levels students today are interacting regularly with keyboards on microcomputers. Micros are being used in computer-assisted instruction and as a problem-solving tool. Thus keyboarding should be taught prior to or in conjunction with the microcomputer experience.

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Focus

It is recommended that keyboarding be focused at the elementary level specifically for intermediate students (4–6). They can learn an entry-level skill and an appreciation of that skill for accessing the computer. It is important that keyboarding be taught as a basic manipulative skill at this level.

The problem today is that in many school systems computer literacy is being taught at all levels without any background in keyboarding; yet, keyboarding is a basic skill for manipulation of the keys by touch.

A casual observation is enough to notice the frustration experienced by those who cannot keyboard. There is a communication barrier between the user and the computer. The user should be devoting his or her concentration to the procedure for solving the problem at hand rather than the mere operation of the equipment.

As individuals hunt and peck, others wait in line for their turn. Most schools cannot afford the luxury of inefficient use of computer time, and the students cannot afford to waste time with inefficient keyboard operation. The hunt-and-peck system we so often see is not cost effective nor is it efficient. A survey conducted in Omaha, Nebraska, indicated that elementary teachers are aware of the poor keyboarding techniques their students are developing. Time spent on the micro indicated a whopping 405 hours of hunting and pecking before reaching the ninth grade.

Although the two-finger technique may occasionally prove adequate for operation of the micro, such a technique will later be a burden when students have to unlearn the technique and are expected to develop habits for the level of skill demanded on a job. The challenge of retraining a typist is difficult, if not impossible.

Limitations

Students at the elementary level are using microcomputers. While primary students (K-3) for the most part input numbers and one word responses, intermediate students (4–6) enter program instructions and complete sentences.

The intermediate students at this stage of computer usage need to learn to handle the keyboard to facilitate the typing. Without the keyboarding skill at this level, they would begin to develop the problems of frustration, wasted time, and poor habits as mentioned above. If the children are being exposed to microcomputers, we must be prepared to meet their needs.

Solution

Keyboarding instruction can be insured for elementary children, who are forming lifelong habits as they operate the microcomputer, with a number of strategies. There needs to exist a spirit of cooperation between elementary and secondary educators while they work together to provide this skill. When, where, and how can this be accomplished?

The public schools of Lincoln, Nebraska, are considering four options for delivering keyboarding instruction to elementary students:

1. Elective courses in summer school
   a. use electric typewriters at the high school
   b. six weeks, one hour per day
   c. high school students not in the building
2. Evening or late afternoon classes at the high school
   a. sessions at 5:00 p.m. or 6:30 p.m.
   b. parents provide transportation
3. Use of high school facilities at other times
   a. typing rooms available in early morning or noon
   b. run half hour sessions
4. Taking the machines and teacher to the schools
   a. equipment and teacher to remain four or five weeks in one school and then move to another building
   b. 20-25 students in a 30-minute class period

The above solutions all used typewriters for instruction. Microcomputers can also be used for group instruction where they are available in a laboratory.

Ms. Winnie Washington, Cuyahoga Valley JVS, Ohio, developed a pilot computer literacy program during school year 1982–83 which included keyboarding as the first phase. The students from area elementary schools were bused to the JVS for the 15 day, one and one-half hours per day course. The curriculum of the successful course will be followed by the satellite schools in their own microcomputer laboratories.

In school systems where there are not enough computers or electric typewriters available for each student to have a typewriter or for each student to have a microcomputer at the same time, a combination approach can be used. Students can take turns using both pieces of equipment since they both use the QWERTY keyboard.

Keyboarding can be a separate course, incorporated into com-

puter literacy, or presented with other subject areas such as composition, reading, or spelling. There are a number of texts and software already on the market with more being developed. The beginning lessons of a typing text (alphabetic, numeric, and symbol keys) can be used, or a text specifically for keyboarding may be adopted.

Conclusion

Whether the students continue school or enter the job market, there is hardly a field today in which they will not come in contact with a computer. Typing in the future will become an integral part of many jobs, not just the job of the so-called typist. The skill of keyboarding to communicate with computers has taken new importance. It is recommended that every student learn this valuable skill as an occupational necessity and personal convenience.

The challenge is to teach keyboarding at the elementary level when the students are forming lifelong habits as they operate the microcomputer.

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Cybernetics and ???

Lucille E. Wright

WHERE DO YOU BEGIN? How do you start? You ask yourself these questions over and over again, and you hope for an answer. You finally conclude the procrastination and just begin. "But how?", you ask yourself again. How do you begin to explain, discuss, divulge, discern, or even define the area of concern?

Cybernetics is communication, control, and cyborg. *Cybernetics* is mathematics at work, machines of intellect, inter- and intra-disciplinary. It is hybrid Greek; the resultant coining of a phraseology by Norbert Wiener.

Wiener is considered the father of cybernetics. He defines it as a discipline that is, in essence, a statistical approach to the theory of communication. Based on this definition, Wiener (1950) states:

> . . . the world is an organism, neighbors, neither so tightly jointed that it cannot be changed in some aspects without losing all of its identity in all aspects nor so loosely jointed that any one thing can happen as readily as any other thing. It is a world which lacks both the rigidity of the Newtonian model of physics and the detail-less flexibility of a state of maximum entropy or heat death, in which nothing really new can ever happen. It is a world of Process, nor one of a final dead equilibrium to which Process leads nor one determined in advance of all happenings, by a preestablished harmony such as that of Leibniz.

Gordon Pask (1961) attempts to define cybernetics in the following manner:

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> Cybernetics is a young discipline which, like applied mathematics, cuts across the entrenched departments of natural science; the sky, the earth, the animals and the plants. Its interdisciplinary character emerges when it considers economy not as an economist, biology not as a biologist, engines not as an engineer. In each case, its theme remains the same, namely, HOW systems regulate themselves, reproduce themselves, evolve and learn. Its high spot is the question of how they organize themselves.

Neville Moray (1963) says that cybernetics is the study of the behavior of systems of all kinds. He further states that it is the science of "input" and "output." In his book entitled *Cybernetics*, he devotes an entire chapter to the language and methods of cybernetics. This text includes a dictionary of terms regarding the field. The language of cybernetics then takes specific form. Some times are denoted; wherein, time itself is the delimiting factor. Terminology includes such words as artefact, look, feedback, logic, control, system, communication, behavior, thing, logic, matrix, attributes, phenomenon, exactly, identical, and variable to name but a few. Therefore, it must be understood that cybernetics is composed of present knowledge but is projected into the unknown to ascertain that which might, someday, be "knowable." Moray then concludes that cybernetics is the science of applied logic. (Wiener coined the word *cybernetics* from the Greek *ktbepnhthe* meaning steersman. Thus cybernetics is logic.)

In 1961, Norbert Wiener published *Cybernetics*. In this publication, he established that cybernetics was to be the science of control and communication in the animal and the machine. Further, a world renowned synthetic animal builder, W. Grey Walter, a British neurophysiologist who is equally well versed in electronics, built ELSIE, which is a man-made animal. ELSIE is an acronym for Electro-Light-Sensitive-Internal-External. This man-made animal is considered one primitive step toward an ultimate goal of duplicating human behavior through machines. In a recent experiment in England, where ELSIE was the center of attention, the viewers were aware that ELSIE seemed anxious; she was obviously looking for something. The viewers of the experiment knew that ELSIE was looking for a light. Thus Walter switched on a lamp, and immediately ELSIE responded as she caught sight of it. ELSIE knew where she wanted to go, and after a slight hesitation (human behavior of reasoning), she continued the pattern of exploration as predetermined in the experiment.

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Frightening? Yes, perhaps it is to some. To scientists, news of ELSIE spurs them on to further investigation; to labor leaders, news of ELSIE creates alarm. Social critics are disturbed by the findings published on ELSIE. Military and industrial leaders are intrigued. Shannon, a prominent cybernetician at MIT, suggests:

> In ten to fifteen years we will see machines gaining. They will be doing complex intellectual tasks, writing theorems of interest to mathematicians, turning in good translations, understanding environment. After that, we can expect the general purpose robot (Wiener, 1961).

It is estimated that in an eight-hour day a linguist can translate 26,000 words. It is predicted that man-made machines will do this at a rate of 1,600 words per minute. Other cyberneticians foresee artificial limbs that will enable amputees to perceive many of the feelings of sensation we perceive from our own limbs.

Business applications of this new era of knowledge become prominent at this point. Much of the future impact of cybernetics will be focused on industry. While there are now a few industries in which manufacturing processes are almost completely automated, there are many more that have yet to hear of cybernetics.

Cyberneticians attempt to duplicate some of the activities of the human system. The sense organs are replaced by photoelectric cells or radar; the nervous system by electronic relays; the muscles by mechanical power. To be of value, machines should perform certain tasks as well as or better than humans, even to the point of making immediate adjustments to particular situations. Technologically, the electronic computers, which we marvel at today, are relatively low in status in the hierarchy of mechanisms that includes ELSIE. Computer actions are rigidly determined in advance, but this is not true in man-made animals constructed through cybernetics.

The field of cybernetics has medical applications. It is hoped that, someday, the diagnosis of illness can be facilitated by loading computers with the total knowledge of medical science on given diseases. Cyberneticians feel that computers can be extremely valuable as an integral part of a complete cybernetic system.

In a review (Moray, 1963) of the book *The Human Use of Human Beings*, it is pointed out that the author, Norbert Wiener, draws the attention of the reader to the future.

> We have seen that the science of cybernetics offers a possible technology the like of which has never been seen before, and one which is qualitatively different from the machine age which came into being at the industrial revolution. The new machine age, the Age of the Artefact, could bring with it immense blessings. It could release men from many of the tasks which bow down and even break the human spirit. But in so doing society will be changed immensely, and we have seen that in a self-organizing system the effects of changes in desirable aspects lead to unpredictable results in other sectors.
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> The machines will take over the jobs, and the era of leisure will be ushered in. But shall we have educated our children to live in such a world? How will men earn, when there are many fewer jobs, and yet enough is provided for all? What new ways of organizing society will be needed to give a meaning and a dignity to being the head of a family? Can people bear to have a life of eternal leisure? Where will the members of the society find their purpose?
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> We do not have time to go into these questions, and indeed it is outside the province of the author to do so. But the cybernetic revolution is going to bring with it a host of moral and ethical decisions, political and social problems, which will have to be faced. And if the revolution comes about, it is only by preparing for it that we shall be able to use it for good . . . what we have seen of automation is like a child playing with bricks compared with what, if the decisions were taken and the money provided, could come to pass in twenty-five years. Given peace and progress, we may have less than two generations to prepare for the changes. Already one union in America is claiming a "sabbatical year," a holiday with pay once in seven years, in order to keep up the labour force despite automation. It behooves us to think.

Sir Stafford Beer (1960), Head of the Department of Operational Research and Cybernetics, The United States Steel Companies Ltd., London, gives a description of the basic understandings of the area of cybernetics in a supposedly elementary manner. Even this elementary manner is elusive to the untrained. With this background information, Sir Beer then expands into the field of industrial management and the implications that cybernetics will be brought to bear on management decisions. He concludes that the measure of the importance of cybernetics to industrial management is the backwardness of society's present outlook on control, not the imagined ability of the science to build a superbrain.

When all is said and done, when all is read, when all is understood, the words of Dr. Moray ring out, "IT BEHOOVES US TO THINK."

The above article is a previously unpublished paper written by Dr. Lucille E. Wright, Cleveland State University, while she was a graduate student in the Master of Education program at the University of Northern Iowa under the direction of Dr. Lloyd Douglas. The paper was written on April 15, 1964. Twenty years later, it is interesting to note the accuracy of these observations.

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Business Education Beyond the Classroom

Wilna Swearingen

EXPECTING BUSINESS STUDENTS to grow in their thirst for knowledge and to develop good business attitudes and positive relationships with society just from reading a textbook (good as it may be) is like expecting a goldfish to grow in a fish bowl in the living room.

Goldfish grow in relation to their spatial environment. For months our neighbors had a pair of little goldfish in a bowl on their coffee table. They fed them the thin white wafers of goldfish food; yet, the fish never seemed to get any bigger. Then one spring day, our friends turned their goldfish loose in the farm pond. In their spacious new environment, the goldfish became about six inches long.

I believe teachers, too, need to enlarge their students' spatial learning environment, by giving their minds room to swim out to new interests, to find new food for thought, to dive deeper, and to develop more fully their present interests.

In addition to the community and resource growth activities suggested in the textbooks, teachers should use their own initiative and develop learning activities from their community and from their school library. They need to extend the learning environment beyond the printed textbook material and the business classroom.

From just the reading matter in the textbook, can most students grasp a wide-enough range of banking concepts during the banking or check-writing chapter to challenge them—and to satisfy you, their teacher? If not, make arrangements with the local bank personnel to permit the class to come to the bank during a class period. (One year, our bank opened a $1 savings account for each

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student while the class was there. Signature cards and passbooks became more than vocabulary words to memorize. They were an experience.) Another year, the bank cashier explained the workings of the vault's door, its weight, the time mechanism in the lock, the services of the bank to the community, and demonstrated how a safe-deposit box works. The students realized, probably for the first time, how people's savings in the bank increase funds available for borrowing by businesses and consumers.

Students become much more inquisitive, knowledgeable, and responsible about the banking process after they are given the advantage of learning from the community bank in addition to the textbook material. Likewise, a visit to the local post office or a speaker from the post office adds to student interest during the postal unit. Instead of gaining just intangible knowledge, terms like *insured mail*, *special delivery*, or *fourth-class mail* become tangible as the postal representatives show the actual processes, and the students see how they work. Postal regulations and rates change periodically, and the textbook may be outdated. Visits encourage the class to get up-to-date regulations and rates, and they like being more current than the authors of their text.

Some newspapers will, on request, send enough papers to a school once a week for educational use. In class, students learn there is more than a sports or a comic page, the only pages some students may be familiar with. Teens begin to grow by becoming familiar with the rest of the paper and by reading it. Using the newspapers in class introduces some to the editorial page, the stock market page, and, yes, even to the world news pages. For the first few weeks of using the paper in class, I made a list of questions from the paper being used, and let them read for the answers, or work together to find the answers, until they became acquainted with the paper.

Teaching students to really use the reference section of the school library is another way to enlarge their spatial environment. The textbooks tell about reference books like *The World Almanac, Information Please, The Reader's Guide to Periodic Literature,* and various kinds of dictionaries and encyclopedias. But unless class members have actual experience using these tools, they may be at a loss in the future when they need to find some specific bit of information. In the *World Almanac*, for example, they won't know to look for the general index in the front unless they have been informed of its location. At the time the Nobel Peace Prize is awarded, could some student find how much Alfred

B. Nobel bequeathed so that the interest could support the awards of the Nobel prize winners? (The answer is $9,000,000.) If someone speaks of the large museum gallery in Washington, D.C. as the Smithsonian Institute, and someone else calls it the Smithsonian Institution, can anyone in your class find its true name? When I was teaching, I went to the school library and made a list of questions from the reference materials available. I made enough questions so I could give a different list to each student in class. *That exercise enabled students to experience searching out specific facts for themselves. Then, forever, they have the ability to find answers as they wonder about facts or question something somebody says.*

Good public relations is something else not learned entirely from a textbook. Much of it comes from experience. As a teacher, I needed to give my students opportunities to meet and practice getting along with people in the business world. So, I planned class activities to help our students develop favorable attitudes toward work and the people in the working world. A project my class liked was to give a reception for a small group of secretaries chosen by the secretarial students. The class members briefly explained our vocational program to the secretaries and asked them to tell about their work. During refreshments, students mingled freely with their guests. The only outlay was for some fruit punch and cookies. But how the secretarial students and their own self images grew! In another project, the advisory committee to the business department put these business people in touch with a department, and the department in touch with them, as we (students and teachers) talked and worked with them to make the department of optimum value in training for the world outside.

Class speakers are another outreach that enlarges student interest. While they may, speakers don't necessarily have to relate to the business world. Speakers outside the business realm may arouse interest in the minds of some students or help them to become better citizens in a society full of temptations. Security officers are sometimes glad to come in and talk about the detections systems, such as two-way mirrors and others, that businesses use to detect shoplifting—in order to discourage students from ever attempting to do such a thing. A cooperative extension agent may speak on consumer buying. A therapist may tell about, and even demonstrate, his or her work and its effectiveness. Someone adept at flower arranging may come in and demonstrate making

arrangements for offices. The community resources are many and varied.

What clues you in that students are growing as a result of the enlarged environment? You can't tell by their size, as you can with the goldfish.

First, listen. You may hear class members discussing among themselves subjects outside the range of the textbook they have been reading. They may share with you something they have read or heard on radio or television relating to some area of their extended learning. You may hear a student tell another student, not in your class, about the class.

Watch. The shy become less shy as they gain confidence in their ability to communicate. They become less reluctant to ask questions when they go on field trips or when they listen to speakers. You will notice that your students are seeing the business world as a world of people—people who were once teens themselves and who are now growing.

Finally, some parent may tell you thankfully that because of your class activities, he or she is seeing his or her teen's attitudes toward school change from rebellion or disinterest to a favorable feeling about his/her business class.

These are thrills only a teacher can experience!

Business Educators, Have You Tried Andragogy?

Michael W. Galbraith

PROVIDING EDUCATIONAL opportunities for adults has been a vital part of the business education program for many years. Technological advances in office technology—word processors, microcomputers, and the total effort of meeting the challenge of the new, high-technology office—have kept individuals in a state of lifelong learning. Because of technological changes and the need for training and retraining of individuals, business educators are in constant contact with adult learners. The need for adult education programs, whether located in high schools, universities, businesses, community or junior colleges, vocational and technical schools, or industry and business complexes, increases due to the rapid technological changes in office automation and procedures.

With the influx of adult learners into business education courses and training sessions, business educators need to examine their own personal philosophy of adult education. One important aspect of this philosophy, which may contribute to the success or failure of any adult education program, is the educator's theory of adult learning.

For years there has been one basic theoretical framework for teaching, which is known as pedagogy. By definition, pedagogy is the art and science of teaching children. Pedagogy is teacher-directed learning. Within this theory, there are various assumptions made about the learner (Knowles, 1975):

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- the learner's self-concept is essentially a dependent personality;
- the learner's experience is one to be built on more than used;
- the learner's readiness to learn varies with levels of maturation;
- the learner's orientation to learning is subject centered; and
- the learner's motivation is triggered by external rewards and punishments.

As business educators, we enter the profession well versed in pedagogical skills. However, a major problem arises when we are faced with the prospect of facilitating learning activities with adults. Are the pedagogical assumptions appropriate for adult learners? Are the skills used to teach children the same as those needed to work with adults? Educators who have worked with adults can verify that some practices used in teaching children and youth are of little use when working with adults.

The Theory of Andragogy

What is andragogy? According to Knowles (1979), andragogy is "the art and science of helping adults learn." The theory of adult learning assumes that adults and children do not learn in exactly the same ways. Five major assumptions set andragogy apart from pedagogy:

- as a person matures his self-concept moves from dependency to increased self-directedness;
- the role of experience serves as a basis for new learning;
- readiness to learn is related to events in a person's life;
- adults tend to have a problem-centered orientation to learning; and
- adults are motivated by internal incentives.

The self-concept aspect of andragogy is one of the most important when dealing with adults in business education. Andragogy assumes that adults view themselves as independent, self-directing persons rather than as dependent personalities who are always told what to do and how to think. When an adult is not allowed to be self-directing, a tension between the situation and his self-concept is experienced. Students in business education, on the whole, are very self-directed and independent. However, if placed in a position of being treated like children, resentment and resistance occur. The most visible result of this type of situation will be a decline in attendance at adult educational activities sponsored by the business education program.

Adult learners tend to have an accumulated reservoir of experience compared to younger students taught in secondary school business classes. An increased emphasis on experiential tech-

niques, which utilizes the experiences of adult learners, outweighs the usefulness of the traditional transmittal techniques employed. The adult learners' experiences become a rich resource for learning. These experiences can be useful to the business educator when working with adults. Any time new material can be related to the learners' experiences, there is an excellent possibility that the new material will be learned more quickly and retained longer. The experiences of adult learners should be explored and exploited along with the resources of experts in business education. Adults involved in particular phases of business education may be far more knowledgeable about a piece of office equipment, procedure, or technique than the local business educator. It is essential to recognize, without being threatened, that adults have a rich resource of experience, and that experience is the basis for new learning. An adult's experience is who he or she is.

Learning readiness for an adult contrasts with that of the child learner. Pedagogy assumes that children are ready to learn different things at different levels of maturation. Andragogy makes the assumption that learners are ready to learn when they have a need to fulfill. For adults, readiness to learn evolves out of developmental tasks and roles. The critical implication of this assumption is in the planning of adult business education programs. Through business education activities and demonstrations, such as word processing, new office technologies and techniques, or microcomputers, adults may realize they have a need for more information and training. Business education programs can be arranged to meet those needs once they are realized and identified. Readiness to learn can be stimulated by business educators through self-diagnostic techniques, exposure to better models of performance, and higher levels of aspiration.

The orientation to learning for an adult is quite different from that of a child. Andragogy assumes that adults tend to be problem centered in their orientation to learning. Pedagogy, on the other hand, considers children to be oriented toward learning subject matter with some future application of the learned material. Adults, however, want something they can immediately apply to their developmental tasks or roles. What adults learn in a business educational meeting they want to put into use immediately to solve a problem or need.

Because of this problem-centered aspect of adult learners, the structuring of business education programs for adults is important. The use of the pure lecture or "canned" audio-visual pre-

sentation may have to fade in favor of discussion, simulation, field experience, question-and-answer, and other action-learning techniques. Adults want information that relates to their specific problems rather than generalities they cannot apply.

The motivation of adult learners also differs from that of child learners. Pedagogy assumes learners are motivated by external rewards and punishments, such as grades, diplomas, degrees, and fear of failure. Andragogy, on the other hand, assumes that learners are motivated by internal incentives, curiosity, the desire to achieve, the urge to grow, the need to know something specific, and the satisfaction of accomplishment. What business educators assume about their adult students will influence how interested and motivated their adult learners remain.

Exposure to the andragogical theory of adult learning can help in the instructional and planning process of adult business education programs. An understanding of adult learning theory and its assumptions should be important to the business educator.

Conclusion

The two approaches to learning theory, pedagogy and andragogy, are not strictly dichotomous, but rather are on a continuum. Business educators may recognize that both sets of assumptions presented might be true. It is not a black and white, good or bad situation. There are situations where pedagogical assumptions are appropriate for adult learners. Pedagogical techniques may be appropriate in areas of new inquiry (such as new technological procedures or sophisticated new office equipment) until the adult learner can move in a direction of self-directedness.

Business educators need to recognize the differences in pedagogy and andragogy assumptions underlying each theory and practice. Many business educators who have worked with both children and adult learners have realized that some of the assumptions that apply to children they teach do not necessarily apply to adults. Andragogy has emerged as a formal theory of learning that takes these differences into account. An adult education program based on andragogy will be more meaningful and useful for the business educator and the adult learner.

Business educators, have you tried andragogy?

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Business Education and Pluralism: A Conversation

Kenneth Martin

ADMINISTRATOR (A): *You probably know that we will be having our North Central evaluation within the next two years. Thus General High School has to be planning right now for this procedure: lots of papers, materials, and presentations have to be organized quickly.*

DEPARTMENT HEAD (DH): *Let me help in any way that I can.*

A: *Actually, we are going to present evidence of education for pluralism this time around in the big evaluation.*

DH: *Since ours is a comprehensive school, we should have no difficulty in . . .*

A: *As I was mentioning, we need to show a firm posture of dedication for cultural pluralism and . . .*

DH: *We ARE dedicated to it!*

A: *Unfortunately, your Business Department doesn't have much for you to talk about and include in the report along those important lines, and this is of great concern to me.*

DH: *But we are deeply involved with education for pluralism!*

A: *Your just saying that isn't enough. We have to have evidence for the evaluators to review.*

DH: *We have it now, or I should say WE CAN HAVE IT for you when you need it. We are involved as a department, with our courses and teaching units, and as teaching professionals in many other ways. The department and the teachers model a great respect for human diversity. Our students pick this up and do likewise, we hope.*

A: *I am not sure that I follow what you said. I realize that we have both vocational as well as academic content in your department for the students . . .*

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DH: *I resent your distinction, but I know that you don't mean it. We have vocational as well as OTHER academic experiences. I know that you meant to say the latter.*

A: *Whatever! The point is that you haven't shown me anything concerning education for pluralism, and this is just one concern that I have about your department.*

DH: *Well, first, we attempt to exhibit a very positive stance, in terms of pluralism, regarding our staffing. Our business faculty represents a variety of ethnic backgrounds and . . .*

A: *Granted. But what other department in the school doesn't?*

DH: *Also, we should be complimented for our contribution to education for internationalism. Many of the materials and units for business content, both in the vocational and in the other academic business areas—please notice how I said this properly—aid students' understanding of international matters.*

A: *Be more specific.*

DH: *For example, we have such understandings included here and there in our accounting, economics, and basic business courses (if you look again at our courses of study, you will find this), and such ideas and practices are in our data processing and even in our typing classes. Without doubt, our business courses are involved with internationalism.*

A: *Are you saying that you are emphasizing cultural pluralism in those ways?*

DH: *Yes, that in addition! Business courses rank right up with those dealing with social science, English, art, and music (and I'm not forgetting foreign languages) in pushing greater understanding of human diversity.*

A: *I am not sure that I know . . .*

DH: *And business economic understandings are in most of our courses, and consumer economics understandings are, as well. If we could add in the marketing and money and banking courses that we had a few years ago, specific units on internationalism and cultural pluralism would be included. Our basic business course has these now. Business education interrelates with all of the other important courses in the school, regardless of the department involved, in stressing knowledge of human diversity.*

A: *I really hadn't thought of . . .*

DH: *Don't forget the many foreign students who are taking business courses. Lots of minorities are included. Minority stu-*

dents share their backgrounds with the others, and vice-versa. They learn from each other more than you can imagine.

A: *I wasn't thinking of student enrollments, specifically.*

DH: *But you should! General High School isn't the largest comprehensive school around, but it IS large. We have students in our classes from Asia (we have been getting more and more students from there in the last few years), and from Africa, India, and Europe, in addition to those from other parts of the U.S.*

A: *Yes, I know.*

DH: *And these students exhibit an unbelievable diversity in religious backgrounds, which they share in many ways in their outlooks on content discussed in our business classes. Our business students also interact with the many students of other ethnic backgrounds through their various student associations throughout the school.*

A: *Your last point is one that our foreign language teachers recently told me to be true about their department's contributions.*

DH: *It is our point, too. In addition, we have advisory committees for each of our vocational business programs and for all of our other academic business programs. These committees are comprised typically of individuals who represent a variety of religious, ethnic, and racial backgrounds. Our student association, for students in vocational business programs, provide extra interpersonal experiences for the students—such as participation with a wide variety of other cultures and races. These experiences take place during meetings and in various competitive events at the local, state, and national levels. Remember that we sent a student to the national competition just last year!*

A: *I like your sense of enthusiasm!*

DH: *Don't forget that our placement of business students on jobs is very good. Whether the students go ahead for further education immediately or later, we have done well in placing them directly from high school on jobs. The community at large knows this, and ideas from the community filter back into our courses through students and teachers. And our community represents the broadest of all ethnic backgrounds! Our student teachers, supplied by the local colleges, also bring in valuable ideas for our students and our faculty regarding education for pluralism. This topic of cultural pluralism and all of its ramifications is a serious issue now in many colleges.*

A: *It has also led to problems, as you know, here in our school.*

DH: *But they are minor in terms of the greater benefits we get from student teachers. These enthusiastic teachers-to-be help bring valuable discussions about the contributions of minorities. They bring exciting ideas of their personal backgrounds, beliefs, and travels. This is in addition to content about such areas as exceptionalities, mainstreaming, philosophies of education, and sociological perspectives.*

A: *I have a few points now for our report, and . . .*

DH: *You, as an administrator, also need to be complimented! You have helped tremendously in getting our total school staff to repudiate racism and sexism in our school.*

A: *But our teachers have done most of it; however, I do want that compliment to be reflected in the report!*

DH: *The business teachers have a history of their discipline's constant repudiation of such influences as racism.*

A: *Let's consider another point. Our racial/ethnic distribution of the student body by grades is typically changing year by year. Our school is not alone in this drastic change.*

DH: *You mean grades in terms of those students who are freshmen, or those who are sophomores, juniors, and seniors?*

A: Yes, the distribution is changing also in each of our business classes, and we have direct involvement of our business teachers and students in coping with these changes. We are constantly modifying our curricula and our courses to aid a students' achievement and still get students to meet academic standards.

A: *Every department is doing that.*

DH: *I am not going to disagree openly with you right now, but I have the suspicion that the Business Department is doing more of the updating and revising than most of the other departments. Our business education discipline is based on change and has always been based on change. Just think of all of the technological developments in our field alone—for example: computers, word processors, and intelligent printers.*

A: *I know.*

DH: *Our business discipline has been involved in changing its vocational and other academic business courses and programs REGULARLY in light of technological, economic, cultural, and educational administrators' thrusts and changes. Business education contributes to education for every student. Many other disciplines, like mathematics and English, don't know what change is! Education for pluralism has been and is an underlying tenet of business discipline.*

A: *Well, thanks for your ideas. I now have a number of good points for the North Central people based on what you've said.*

DH: *Don't go yet. Don't forget that the various guest speakers in our classes and in our youth associations' meetings bring in valuable ideas about education for pluralism in its broadest sense. These speakers and their presentations reflect other cultures, other points of view, other feelings, and other areas of knowledge. Our students definitely benefit from such exposures.*

A: *That IS a very good comment for me to use.*

DH: *Also, many of our teachers and their classes have had guest speakers from an extensive variety of representatives of other countries. This is especially true when these visitors were known to be nearby and here at a time convenient for our classes. Further, some of our business students participate in the International Club's activities sponsored by the Social Science Department and in the Big Brotherhood Assembly's functions on multicultural dimensions.*

A: *Apparently, you think that your department covers education for pluralism in many great ways!*

DH: *But it does! And you should know this! You should also know that some of our business students even act as guides and "buddies" to new students here at the school. This helps the new students socially and academically. Our business students are on almost every committee in the school. Business students help out with foreign students who don't know English and . . .*

A: *I have to hear this! HOW do they help foreigners?*

DH: *Some of our students volunteer free time to be in the "English As A Foreign Language" classes to assist in small group work, to help "drill" the students on English expressions, and to talk about their own backgrounds and ideas. All of these help the struggling foreign student. All of our business students are experts in English, when viewed by the foreigners with their limited English-speaking skills. They really enjoy assisting others. In doing this, our business students learn many important things about the other students' backgrounds and beliefs.*

A: *I see. From everything you have said, I suppose that General High School is doing an excellent job in this area of education for pluralism and largely because of your Business Department's efforts!*

DH: *Forget the "largely because" bit. I think that our department is holding its own in this needed education for pluralism; however, you administrators may need to improve your assistance!*

A: *Be specific!*

DH: *I shall only mention a couple of things that would help us teachers. I don't want to do your administrative work for you—that is your job. We could, without a doubt, benefit from an in-school sensitivity training program at the very beginning of the school year, for our entire school's faculty. It could help us understand the new racial/ethnic mix of the students.*

A: *That is all?*

DH: *Let me tell you more. This training should include the teachers in the entire school, all the administrators, and all of the security personnel (especially the latter in light of all of the problems you know we have had recently). We are getting so many Asians now—and their cultures are so different from ours—that we would appreciate insight into the backgrounds of these students. For example, one Asian might not sit near another Asian because members of different Asian cultures were wartime enemies.*

A: *That could be a point for conflict.*

DH: *Perhaps the administrators could form planning groups—one for the teachers and one for the students—to assist in developing programs and activities that would help encourage pluralism.*

A: *Another planning group!*

DH: *It could be made up of members representing the ethnic/racial proportions of the school. It could assist in suggesting programs and activities which would encourage even more pluralism. It certainly would encourage the positive interpersonal relationships among majority and minority teachers and students that we know are needed.*

A: *Perhaps.*

DH: *But I don't want to bother you with extra challenges. I just wanted to tell you about the good things in business education regarding pluralism and how we are deeply involved in education for pluralism.*

A: *Your ideas for improvement might be all right to include. But maybe we should let the North Central evaluators find their own recommendations!*

DH: *Don't forget some of my points for your report. Remember that our Business Department is deeply involved with education for pluralism. Our business content contributes heavily to it, our faculty pushes it seriously, our discipline interrelates with other departments' thrusts toward it, our teachers and our*

business content are deeply dedicated to it, our diverse group of students reflects it, our business courses serve or assist students in other academic areas regarding it, and we have specific content and experiences for awakening students to it. Should I say more?

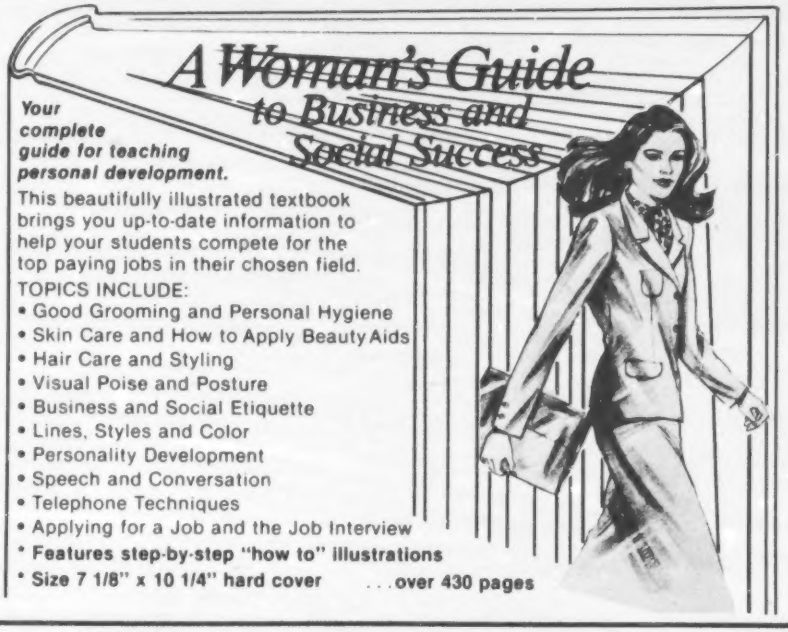
A: *Well, thanks for the information . . .*

DH: *And remember that our department doesn't teach doctrine, and it does not avoid its responsibility to tell students about the pluralistic society in which they will be getting jobs and otherwise living. We are not incurring the wrath of pressure groups who don't like their students to know anything about what is happening globally. Our job is to assist students to become aware of the world in which they will be using their business skills, their knowledge, and their understanding.*

A: *I know.*

DH: *Our department's part in education for pluralism is as successful as could be expected at the present time. These efforts, however, should also be matched by the staff efforts of the entire school and by the community at large.*

A: *Again, thanks for the information. I am surprised and pleased to hear how the Business Department contributes to education for pluralism.*



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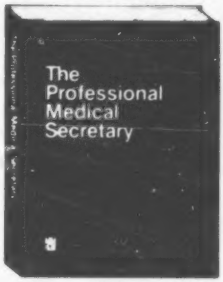

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Computer Terminology Common to Data Processing, Office Management, Records Management, and Word Processing

Katherine A. Schafer

PERHAPS THERE ARE TERMS and concepts common to introductory computer technology courses. Common *terms* may be used with different illustrations in each course and such terms represent *concepts* shared by all business computer activities. The importance, therefore, of identifying those terms that supply meaningful overlap in several related subject areas cannot be overemphasized.

Students' understanding of the meanings of common terms will provide keys to understanding the computer field as a whole. Such learning will allow recognition of relationships and interdependencies of subject matter, which is so important to success both in the classroom and the business world. An understanding of common computer terms will develop a strong foundation of fundamental knowledge upon which further learning can expand.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to identify the computer terms common to data processing, office management, records management, and word processing. In order to identify the terms, it was necessary to answer the following questions:

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1. What are the frequencies of occurrence of the respective computer terms among data processing, office management, records management, and word processing?
2. What are the computer terms common to data processing, office management, records management, and word processing?

Statistical Analysis

Often, studies of this type are merely frequency counts; for this study, however, three statistical indices were used. These three indices were obtained from the *American Heritage Word Frequency Book*, (a word frequency book for the English language) for the purpose of compiling data for the publication of a new school dictionary.

The statistical indices developed for the *American Heritage Word Frequency Book* are D, U, and SFI. D^1 is an index of dispersion. U^2 is a frequency-per-million index that is adjusted for the value of D.

The SFI^3 or Standard Frequency Index is a further transformation of U to a readily manageable and understandable logarithmic index that can be used to report word probabilities regardless of the size of the sample. A FORTRAN computer program was written to calculate the D, U, and SFI values for each term.

Analysis of the Data

The data in Table 1 indicate the total number of words in each textbook. The calculated number of words in the office management textbook was 184,140. The data processing textbook contained 100,188 words; and records management contained 96,336. The word processing textbook contained 92,160. For all four textbooks, the total number of words was 472,824.

TABLE 1

TOTAL WORDS IN DATA PROCESSING, OFFICE MANAGEMENT, RECORDS MANAGEMENT, AND WORD PROCESSING TEXTBOOKS

Textbook	Words in Text
Office Management	184,140
Data Processing	100,188
Records Management	96,336
Word Processing	92,160
	472,824

The data in Table 2 show the frequencies and percent of computer terms as identified in this study for each of the four subject

areas. The number of computer terms identified in data processing was 13,254 terms, which was 49.6 percent of the total computer terms identified in this study. In office management, there were 6,749 computer terms, which was 25.2 percent of the total terms. In word processing, there were 4,021 computer terms, which was 15.1 percent of the total terms. In records management, there were 2,708 computer terms, which was 10.1 percent of the total terms.

TABLE 2

FREQUENCIES AND PERCENT OF TOTAL COMPUTER TERMS IDENTIFIED IN THE DATA PROCESSING, OFFICE MANAGEMENT, RECORDS MANAGEMENT, AND WORD PROCESSING TEXTBOOKS

Textbook	Frequencies	Percent
Data Processing	13,254	49.6
Office Management	6,749	25.2
Word Processing	4,021	15.1
Records Management	2,708	10.1
	26,732	100.0

The data in Table 3 state the percentage of computer terms identified in each textbook. The data processing textbook contained a total of 100,188 words of which 837 were identified as computer terms. The 837 computer terms had a frequency of occurrence of 13,254, which was 13.2 percent of the total textbook words.

TABLE 3

PERCENT OF COMPUTER TERMS TO TOTAL WORDS IN THE DATA PROCESSING, OFFICE MANAGEMENT, RECORDS MANAGEMENT, AND WORD PROCESSING TEXTBOOKS

Textbook	Words in Textbook	Computer Terms	Frequency of Occurrence of Computer Terms	Percent of Occurrence to Total Text Words
Data Processing	100,188	837	13,254	13.2
Word Processing	92,160	177	4,021	4.4
Office Management	184,140	574	6,749	3.7
Records Management	96,336	239	2,708	2.8

The word processing textbook contained a total of 92,160 words of which 177 were identified as computer terms. The 177 computer terms had a frequency of occurrence of 4,021, which was 4.4 percent of the total textbook words.

The office management textbook contained a total of 184,140 words of which 574 were identified as computer terms. The 574 computer terms had a frequency of occurrence of 6,749, which was 3.7 percent of the total textbook words.

The records management textbook contained a total of 96,336 words of which 239 were identified as computer terms. The 239 computer terms had a frequency of occurrence of 2,708, which was 2.8 percent of the total words.

The information in Table 4 shows the frequency range and percentage of computer terms that occurred in all textbooks. Among the four areas of data processing, office management, records management, and word processing, 2,285 different computer terms were identified.

TABLE 4

FREQUENCY RANGES OF COMPUTER TERMS IN DATA PROCESSING, OFFICE MANAGEMENT, RECORDS MANAGEMENT, AND WORD PROCESSING TEXTBOOKS

Frequency		Number of Computer Terms	Percent
over	but not over		
1,000	——	3	.13
500	1,000	4	.18
350	500	6	.26
200	350	9	.39
100	200	23	1.01
50	100	35	1.53
20	50	96	4.20
9	20	191	8.36
5	9	266	11.65
2	5	298	13.04
1	2	325	14.22
0	1	1,029	45.03
		2,285	100.00

Findings

The findings of this study were as follows:

1. Sixty-eight different computer terms, shown in Table 5, were

TABLE 5
COMPUTER TERMS COMMON TO FOUR TEXTBOOKS

Term	D/P	O/M	R/M	W/P	Total Freq	D	U	SFI
Analyst, -s	86	18	1	7	112	0.446	120.213	60.800
Application, -s	2	46	11	1	60	0.648	83.925	59.239
Backup	5	2	1	2	10	0.844	18.123	52.582
Card, -s	361	135	54	3	553	0.572	718.132	68.562
Cathode Ray Tube, -s	4	6	2	3	15	0.982	31.186	54.940
Code, -d, -ing, -s	168	35	60	24	287	0.754	471.584	66.736
Com	16	13	1	7	37	0.818	65,161	58.140
Computer Language, -s	3	1	1	1	6	0.858	11.040	50.430
Computer Output Microfilm	2	1	2	2	7	0.930	13.832	51.409
Computer System, -s	89	38	10	2	139	0.586	184.235	62.654
Computer, -s	1006	388	144	153	1691	0.734	2714.390	74.337
CRT	10	1	2	23	36	0.610	48.448	56.853
Data	584	356	63	103	1106	0.764	1835.916	72.639
Data Base, -s	7	15	1	2	25	0.825	44.193	56.454
Data Processing	121	112	17	90	340	0.883	641.108	68.069
Device, -s	152	27	4	36	219	0.585	290.955	64.638
Disk, -s	103	21	19	30	173	0.760	286.237	64.567
Display, -ed, -s	17	15	7	19	58	0.932	114.896	60.603
Edit, -ed, -ing	6	4	2	4	16	0.929	31.604	54.997
Electronic, -ally	22	97	20	6	145	0.845	261.584	64.176
File, -d, -ing, -s	197	43	66	8	314	0.660	459.628	66.624
Floppy Disk, -s	1	2	2	8	13	0.697	19.575	52.917
Format, -ing	5	1	1	1	8	0.732	12.819	51.079
Hard Copy, -ies	2	13	20	30	65	0.766	106.663	60.280

Term	D/P	O/M	R/M	W/P	Total Freq	D	U	SFI
Hardware	23	19	1	2	45	0.662	65.768	58.180
Index, -ed, -es, -ing	9	16	25	4	54	0.846	97.498	59.890
Information Processing	3	12	1	101	117	0.270	75.371	58.772
Information System, -s	6	24	2	3	35	0.836	62.504	57.959
Input, -s, -ted, -ting	316	83	8	35	442	0.535	546.125	67.373
Instruction, -s	9	24	1	1	35	0.704	53.425	57.277
Keyboard, -ed, -ing, -s	18	11	10	92	131	0.596	171.235	62.336
Keypunch, -ed, -ing, -s	47	49	6	1	103	0.676	152.867	61.843
Magnetic	75	80	37	3	195	0.816	341.974	65.340
Magnetic Disk, -s	15	15	6	9	45	0.962	91.791	59.628
Magnetic Tape, -s	36	37	14	8	95	0.909	183.923	62.646
Media, -ium	9	11	3	80	103	0.458	105.834	60.246
Memory, -ies	13	17	2	23	55	0.825	97.205	59.877
Microfilm, -ed, -ing, -s	22	53	55	141	271	0.791	459.209	66.620
Microfilm, -s	2	33	23	4	62	0.768	101.828	60.079
Numeric Data	6	2	1	1	10	0.743	16.225	52.102
OCR	11	6	2	57	76	0.498	84.578	59.273
Off-Line	1	2	2	2	7	0.957	14.197	51.522
On-Line	3	6	2	2	13	0.986	27.139	54.336
Optical Character Recognition	2	3	1	6	12	0.811	20.847	53.190
Output, -s, -ting	238	84	6	24	352	0.560	450.372	66.536
Paper Tape, -s	13	9	1	6	29	0.822	51.312	57.102
Printer, -ing, -s	45	7	1	63	116	0.603	155.658	61.922
Printout, -s	10	12	7	5	34	0.981	70.662	58.492
Process, -ed, -es, -ing	215	112	15	22	364	0.666	536.651	67.297
Program, -ming, -med, -s	642	86	5	20	753	0.301	611.621	67.865

Term	D/P	O/M	R/M	W/P	Total Freq	D	U	SFI
Punch, -ed, -es, -ing	141	216	40	2	399	0.744	642.893	68.081
Read, -ing, -s	1	8	7	3	19	0.874	35.315	55.480
Reader, -s	8	28	20	5	61	0.912	118.192	60.726
Record, -ed, -ing, -s	165	153	233	15	566	0.812	985.580	69.937
Retrieval	1	39	92	6	138	0.503	151.387	61.801
Screen, -s	6	8	13	16	43	0.900	82.291	59.154
Sort, -er, -ers, -ing	22	14	6	3	45	0.824	79.805	59.020
Storage	97	56	29	67	249	0.910	482.927	66.839
Storage Device, -s	1	3	3	3	10	0.929	19.725	52.950
Storage Media	3	1	1	14	19	0.535	22.582	53.538
Store, -d, -ing, -s	61	29	38	9	137	0.846	248.689	63.957
System, -s	374	602	63	153	1192	0.886	2252.175	73.526
Tape, -s	193	21	13	12	239	0.452	260.230	64.154
Telecommunication, -s	1	42	2	25	70	0.655	98.997	59.956
Terminal, -s	231	47	39	54	371	0.732	594.542	67.742
Update, -d, -ing, -s	19	16	7	2	44	0.843	79.558	59.007
Visual Display, -s	5	3	2	1	11	0.876	20.615	53.142
Word Processing	4	59	29	449	541	0.340	422.229	66.255

common to data processing, office management, records management, and word processing.

2. Forty-six different computer terms with U values over 100 were found. Thirty-five of these terms were common to four textbooks; nine were common to three textbooks; and two were common to two textbooks.

3. Of the 68 computer terms common to the four textbooks, 31 common computer terms or 45.6 percent occurred over 100 times among the four textbooks; 30 common computer terms or 44.1 percent occurred between 11 and 100 times among the four textbooks; 4 common computer terms or 5.8 percent occurred between 6 and 9 times; no common computer terms occurred between one and five times.

4. Of the 2,285 different computer terms, 45 computer terms or 2.0 percent occurred over 100 times among the four textbooks; 322 computer terms or 14.1 percent occurred between 10-100 times among the four textbooks; and 1,918 computer terms or 83.9 percent occurred between 1-10 times among the four textbooks.

5. In the data processing textbook, 837 computer terms had a frequency of occurrence of 13,254, which was 13.2 percent of the total textbook words of 100,188.

6. In the word processing textbook, 534 computer terms had a frequency of occurrence of 4,021, which was 4.4 percent of the total words of 92,160.

7. In the office management textbook, 583 computer terms had a frequency of occurrence of 6,749, which was 3.7 percent of the total textbook words of 184,140.

8. In the records management textbook, 862 computer terms had a frequency of occurrence of 2,708, which was 2.8 percent of the total textbook words of 96,336.

9. A frequency count of computer terms found in all four textbooks provided a total of 26,732 computer terms.

10. A total of 472,824 words were found in all textbooks of which 100,188 were within the data processing textbook; 184,140 were within the office management textbook; 96,336 were within the records management textbook; and 92,160 were within the word processing.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn from the findings of the study:

1. The majority of the 68 common computer terms had very

high frequencies of occurrence, while the majority of the 2,285 different computer terms had very low frequencies of occurrence among the four subject areas. The computer terms common to the four subject areas had high frequencies of occurrence and appeared to be more important to general computer understanding than the terms that occurred in a single textbook.

2. The 46 computer terms with U values over 100 were terms of high importance. All 46 terms, regardless of commonality among textbooks, had high frequencies and were dispersed among the subject areas.

3. When the total number of textbook words was considered, there was a greater concentration of computer terms in data processing and office management than in records management and word processing.

Recommendations

As computer technology continues to reach more and more into all aspects of consumer living, it is becoming increasingly important for everyone to have a solid foundation in computer technology and its special terminology.

1. In data processing, office management, records management, word processing, or other related office courses, instructors could use these frequently occurring and most important terms in teaching.

2. There are only 68 terms common to four textbooks and 108 common to three textbooks; therefore, a teacher can use these terms in class discussions on computer concepts.

3. Writers and teachers of various disciplines could develop a "word list" to eliminate different spellings of the same term.

FOOTNOTES

[1]The formula is:

$$D = [\log (p_i) - (p_i \log p_i)/p_i]/\log n,$$

where n = number of categories,

i = category number, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$,

p_i = probability of a token in the i^{th} category, and

$p_i \log p_i = 0$ for $p_i = 0$.

[2]The adjustment is made by the following formula:

$$U = (1{,}000{,}000/N)\,[FD + (1 - D)f_{min}],$$

where

N = total number of tokens in the corpus,
F = frequency of the word in the corpus,
D = index of dispersion, and
f_{min} = 1/N times the sum of the products of f_i and s_i, where f_i is the frequency in category i and s_i is the number of tokens in the category.

[3]SFI is computed from U by the following formula:

$$SFI = 10(\log_{10}U + 4).$$

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Comparison of 45 Work Values Among Students

Max Hansel and Ray Bernardi

Values are defined as qualities that are regarded as intrinsically valuable or desirable. They are the qualities that people desire and seek in the activities in which they engage, in situations in which they live, and in objects that they make or acquire. *Values* are related to *interests* but differ in that they are the qualities sought rather than the activities or objects that embody them. Values are, thus, more fundamental.

The importance of values relates to educational settings as well, particularly those relating to business/industrial counseling. Understanding the value structure of a student or client in educational and vocational counseling or of an applicant for a position in business or industry aids in clarifying goals and in determining the psychological appropriateness of a given type of training or employment. Knowing the values that are most readily realized in various occupations and work settings, the counselor, psychologist, personnel director, or teacher has a basis for counseling.

The Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not a difference exists in 45 work values of commuter and non-commuter students with respect to two research questions. *Research Question 1:* Are there any differences between the work value means of commuter and non-commuter students? *Research Question 2:* Are there any differences between the work value means of commuter and non-commuter students based on sex? The findings of this study may have implications for career advising for employability in business and industry.

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Procedures

Two types of instruments were used to collect the data for this study. Super's *Work Values Inventory* (1970) was used to assess the 45 work values or desired satisfactions that people seek in their work or as outcomes of their work. The *Work Values Inventory* (WVI) contains 45 items that relate to the following values:

Altruism	Intellectual Stimulation	Prestige
Esthetics	Independence	Management
Creativity	Achievement	Economic Returns
Security	Surroundings	Variety
Supervisory Relations	Associates	Way of Life

The second instrument was a biographical data sheet; students were asked to supply such information as sex and whether or not they live on campus.

Population and Sample

The university from which students were sampled in the study is a state-supported public institution with an enrollment of about 10,250 full- and part-time day and evening students. It is located in a populous area about 15 miles from a major city. The surrounding communities range in size from about 8,000 to 45,000 in population with a fairly stable industrial base. Many of the students represent first generation college students, and the middle income, blue collar influence is evident in the make-up of the student body. The university is primarily made up of commuter students; 1,350 living spaces are available on campus for students, and a little over 10 percent of the total student body live on campus.

Students were asked to volunteer to participate in the study through personal solicitation by the researchers. Students were enrolled in three course offerings that are typically taken by freshmen and sophomore students. A total of 150 inventories and data sheets were collected from 74 on-campus residents and 76 commuters. Because of the small size of the sample of this study, all cases collected were retained.

Research Design

During the 1981–82 academic year, standardized test administration procedures were followed in administering the WVI to students in classes. At the same time, students were asked to complete the biographical data sheet. Work values were deter-

mined by using raw scores of students relative to the 15 scales in WVI.

Data collection was done on a test scoring sheet for each student, and standardized test administration procedures were followed. The SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) package was used for analyzing the data. Specific statistics included the *t*-test and analysis of variance.

As used in this study, Super's work values are defined in terms of the construct the instrument was designed to measure. The work values that were analyzed are defined below and based on the WVI.

Altruism: A value or goal which is present in work which enables one to contribute to the welfare of others.

Esthetic: A value inherent in work which permits one to make beautiful things and to contribute beauty to the world.

Creativity: A value associated with work which permits one to invent new things, design new products, or develop new ideas.

Intellectual Stimulation: A value associated with work which provides opportunity for independent thinking and for learning how and why things work.

Achievement: A value associated with work which gives one a feeling of accomplishment in doing a job well done.

Independence: A value associated with work which permits one to work in one's own way, as fast or as slowly as one wishes.

Prestige: A value associated with work which gives one standing in the eyes of others and evokes respect.

Management: A value associated with work which permits one to plan and lay out work for others to do.

Economic Returns: A value or goal associated with work which pays well and enables one to have the things one wants.

Security: A value associated with work which provides one with the certainty of having a job even in hard times.

Surroundings: A value associated with work which is carried out under pleasant conditions—not too hot or too cold, noisy, dirty.

Supervisory Relations: A value associated with work which is carried out under a supervisor who is fair and with whom one can get along.

Associates: A value characterized by work which brings one into contact with fellow workers whom one likes.

Way of Life: A value associated with the kind of work that

permits one to live the kind of life one chooses and to be the type of person one wishes to be.

Variety: A value which is associated with work that provides an opportunity to do different types of jobs.

Data Analysis

Research question one asked if there were any significant differences between the work value means of commuter and non-commuter students. A *t*-test (Table 1) revealed statistically significant differences at the .05 level on two work values, Management and Supervisory Relations.

TABLE 1

COMPARISON OF COMMUTERS AND NON-COMMUTERS ON WORK VALUES INVENTORY

	Commuters (N=76)		Non-Commuters (N=74)			
Work Values	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	T-Value	Two-Tail Probability
Altruism	12.67	5	12.88	6	0.57	0.573
Esthetics	8.22	15	8.51	15	0.68	0.498
Creativity	10.87	13	11.30	13	1.12	0.264
Intellectual Stimulation	11.07	11	11.47	10	1.19	0.235
Achievement	13.03	2	13.41	2	1.26	0.208
Independence	11.58	8	11.92	7.5	0.98	0.330
Prestige	11.16	10	11.77	12	1.58	0.116
Management	9.32	14	10.47	14	2.99	0.003*
Economic Return	12.92	3	13.27	4	1.09	0.277
Security	12.74	4	13.03	5	0.77	0.443
Surroundings	12.08	7	11.92	7.5	−0.49	0.622
Supervisory Relations	12.43	6	13.34	3	2.46	0.015*
Associates	11.01	12	11.31	11	0.90	0.372
Way of Life	13.76	1	13.72	1	−0.18	−0.861
Variety	11.32	9	11.82	9	1.45	0.150

*Significant at the .05 level

The non-commuter group had a mean of 10.47 on Management while the commuters had a mean of 9.32. The non-commuters had a mean of 13.34 on Supervisory Relations and the commuters had a mean of 12.43. On both measures, the non-commuters, as a group, had the higher mean. One conclusion from this question is that resident, on-campus students evidence more concern about management and supervisory relations than do commuters.

Research question two asked if there were any significant differences between work value means because of sex. A *t*-test (Table 2) showed statistically significant differences at the .05 level on two work values, Esthetics and Prestige.

TABLE 2

WORK VALUE INVENTORY MEANS BY SEX

Work Values	Female (N=101) Mean	Rank	Male (N=49) Mean	Rank	T-Value	Two-Tail Probability
Altruism	12.99	5.5	12.32	6	1.65	0.103
Esthetics	8.02	15	9.06	15	−2.35	0.021*
Creativity	10.98	12.5	11.29	13	−0.74	0.461
Intellectual Stimulation	11.25	10	11.31	12	−0.16	0.874
Achievement	13.36	2	12.92	3	1.26	0.212
Independence	11.51	9	12.25	7	−1.93	0.056
Prestige	11.12	11	12.16	8	−2.63	0.010*
Management	9.70	14	10.27	14	−1.29	0.201
Economic Returns	13.01	4	13.27	2	−0.70	0.484
Security	12.99	5.5	12.65	4	0.79	0.433
Surroundings	12.20	7	11.59	9	1.77	0.080
Supervisory Relations	13.02	3	12.59	5	1.03	0.307
Associates	10.98	12.5	11.53	10	−1.66	0.100
Way of Life	13.94	1	13.33	1	1.90	0.061
Variety	11.64	8	11.41	11	0.64	0.524

*Significant at the .05 level

The mean for women on Esthetics was 8.02 and for men, 9.06. On Prestige, the mean for women was 11.12 and for men, 12.16. Of the 15 work values, Esthetics ranks lowest for both men and women.

Table 3 shows one significant difference for males when compared on a commuter versus non-commuter basis. Only Associates is significantly different, and non-commuters value it more highly than commuters.

TABLE 3

WORK VALUE INVENTORY MEANS OF MALE COMMUTER AND NON-COMMUTER STUDENTS

Work Values	Commuters (N=26) Mean	Rank	Non-Commuters (N=23) Mean	Rank	T-Value	Two-Tail Probability
Altruism	12.39	6	12.27	6	0.17	0.865
Esthetics	9.13	15	9.00	15	0.18	0.858
Creativity	11.78	9	10.85	13	1.36	0.181
Intellectual Stimulation	11.57	10	11.08	12	0.79	0.435
Achievement	12.96	2	12.88	4	0.11	0.910
Independence	12.65	4	11.88	9.5	1.18	0.243
Prestige	12.17	8	12.15	7	0.03	0.976
Management	11.00	13	9.62	14	1.93	0.060
Economic Returns	13.13	1	13.38	2	−0.39	0.698
Security	12.30	7	12.96	3	−0.86	0.396
Surroundings	11.26	12	11.88	9.5	−1.08	0.287
Supervisory Relations	12.48	5	12.69	5	−0.29	0.770
Associates	10.96	14	12.04	8	−2.18	0.035*
Way of Life	12.91	3	13.69	1	−1.29	0.204
Variety	11.30	11	11.50	11	−0.33	0.747

*Significant at the .05 level

The mean for non-commuter students on Associates was 12.04 and commuters, 10.96. This placed Associates as the 8th ranked value for non-commuters and the 14th ranked for commuters.

Table 4 shows four significant differences for females on work values. They are Prestige, Management, Supervisory Relations and Associates. The commuters have the higher mean in each case. Prestige, 11.59 versus 10.64, Management, 10.24 versus 9.16, Supervisory Relations 13.73 versus 12.30 and Associates, 11.47 versus 10.48.

TABLE 4

WORK VALUE INVENTORY MEANS OF FEMALE COMMUTER AND NON-COMMUTER STUDENTS

Work Values	Commuters (N=51) Mean	Rank	Non-Commuters (N=50) Mean	Rank	T-Value	Two-Tail Probability
Altruism	13.10	6	12.88	3	0.51	0.609
Esthetics	8.24	15	7.82	15	0.80	0.428
Creativity	11.08	13	10.88	11	0.43	0.670
Intellectual Stimulation	11.43	12	11.06	10	0.89	0.375
Achievement	13.61	3	13.10	2	1.53	0.129
Independence	11.59	9.5	11.42	8	0.42	0.679
Prestige	11.59	9.5	10.64	12	2.02	0.046*
Management	10.24	14	9.16	14	2.34	0.021*
Economic Returns	13.33	5	12.68	4	1.81	0.074
Security	13.35	4	12.62	5	1.73	0.088
Surroundings	12.22	7	12.18	7	0.09	0.928
Supervisory Relations	13.73	2	12.30	6	3.41	0.001*
Associates	11.47	11	10.48	13	2.38	0.019*
Way of Life	14.08	1	13.80	1	1.04	0.299
Variety	12.06	8	11.22	9	1.92	0.057

*Significant at the .05 level

Summary and Conclusions

Commuters and non-commuters were significantly different on two work values, Management and Supervisory Relations. On both work values, the non-commuters as a group had the higher mean. The conclusion is that on-campus students (non-commuters) value more highly, and evidence greater concern about, Management and Supervisory Relations than do commuter students.

Males and females differ on two work values, Esthetics and Prestige. The males in this study valued Esthetics and Prestige more than the females.

Males, when compared by commuter versus non-commuter status, showed a significant difference only on Associates. Non-commuters value Associates more highly. Commuting females were significantly higher on Prestige, Management, Supervisory Relations, and Associates.

Recommendations

As a result of the conclusions of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Business educators, counselors, and employers, as they teach, counsel, and manage individuals should be aware of the work values held by such individuals. Learning and work situations can be adapted to maximize students' benefits.

2. A larger sample that includes more upperclassmen may likely show different results than this study, which had very few upperclassmen.

REFERENCE

Super. (1970). *Work Values Inventory.*

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Economic Education Resources for Ohio Business Teachers

Larry G. Siferd

THROUGHOUT THE STATE, countless teachers are providing economic education in a highly effective manner. Given the new state standards for economic education, it seems likely that more business teachers are involved with economic instruction than ever before and that ever-increasing numbers will be involved in future years. This situation should not be surprising to business educators in Ohio, for we have long accepted the responsibility of preparing students to fulfill their multiple roles as citizens, consumers, employees, and entrepreneurs.

The purpose of this article is to acquaint both potential teachers and present teachers of economics with the numerous educational resources available to them. What's more, many of the materials listed within this article are appropriate for related business courses, such as consumer economics, business law, general business, and personal finance, which emphasize economic concepts. However, this list is not comprehensive, for such an undertaking could completely fill a volume as large as *The Ohio Business Teacher*. Instead, it is a quick and easy guide to sources of further information, as well as an outline of the more popular and effective ways to enrich economic instruction.

Ohio Council on Economic Education

This organization was established in 1953 and is housed at The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Its purpose is to "coordinate, service, encourage, and improve economic understanding in Ohio" (Ripley, 1983). The Ohio Council works with eight affiliated Centers for Economic Education to coordinate various national, state, and regional economic education programs.

Each affiliated center has a full-time director and support personnel. The center's functions include:

- improving the regional instruction programs in economics for both present and future teachers;

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- providing consultants to schools, educational agencies, and community organizations;
- conducting research in economic education;
- developing materials to enhance economic instruction; and
- distributing materials that are relevant to economic education.

Obviously, these Centers for Economic Education contain a wealth of information useful for effective economic instruction. Business teachers may contact the following individuals to obtain information on economic education.

Akron
Dr. Fred Carr, Director
Center for Economic Education
University of Akron, Zook Hall
Department of Education
Akron, Ohio 44325
(216) 375-7762

Ashland
Dr. Lucille Ford, Director
Gill Center for Business and Economic Education
Ashland College
Ashland, Ohio 44805
(419) 289-5132

Athens
Dr. Roman Warmke, Director
Center for Economic Education
College of Education
Ohio University
102 McCracken Hall
Athens, Ohio 45701
(614) 594-5546

Cincinnati
Dr. George Vredeveld, Director
Greater Cincinnati Center for Economic Education
Mail Location 371
University of Cincinnati
Cincinnati, Ohio 45221
(513) 475-2948

Cleveland
Mr. Robert Reinke, Director
Center for Economic Education
School of Business
John Carroll University
Cleveland, Ohio 44118
(216) 491-4384

Columbus
Dr. Steven Miller, Director
Central Ohio Center for Economic Education
The Ohio State University
315 Ramseyer Hall
29 West Woodruff
Columbus, Ohio 43210
(614) 422-1178

Columbus
Donald G. Fell
Executive Director
Ohio Council on Economic Education
The Ohio State University
112 West Hall
1050 Carmack Road
Columbus, Ohio 43210
(614) 422-5276

Dayton
Dr. Walter Verdon, Director
Center for Economic Education
Wright State University
Colonel Glenn Highway
Dayton, Ohio 45435
(513) 873-2814

Toledo
Dr. Frederick Tank, Director
Dr. Donald Yankovic, Associate Director
Center for Economic Education
Department of Economics
University of Toledo
Toledo, Ohio 43606
(419) 537-4153

Joint Council on Economic Education

This society exists to promote the teaching and learning of economics. Pursuant to this goal, the Joint Council provides many low cost materials to teachers, and some of these resources are available from the eight Centers mentioned earlier. Frequently, teachers may borrow, at no charge, films, games, simulations, and other items from the Centers for use in their classrooms.

The Joint Council also publishes the *Checklist*, which is an index of economic education resources available from the organization. This document may be obtained by writing a letter of request to the Joint Council on Economic Education, 2 Park Avenue, New York, NY 10016. Also, this index is available at any of the eight Ohio Council Centers mentioned previously.

The following items have been selected from the Fall, 1983 *Checklist* because of their particular effectiveness in enriching economic instruction. They may be ordered by writing to the Order Department of the Joint Council at the address previously given. For further information, call the Ohio Council Center nearest you.

General

Master Curriculum Guide in Economics for the Nation's Schools. This guide is designed for use in curriculum development projects that introduce economic concepts into a variety of courses. It can also be employed by methods instructors or by others responsible for preservice and in-service training of teachers. The MCG is not intended to establish a single prescribed economics curriculum for use by all schools, but to furnish guidelines by which school systems can more easily integrate economics into their existing courses of study.

Framework for Teaching Economics: Basic Concepts. This resource presents a concise statement of the basic concepts and generalizations for teaching economics and summarizes the structure and substance of economics as understood by the majority of economists and economic educators. By W. Lee Hansen, G. L. Bach, James D. Calderwood, and Phillip Saunders. 1977, 56 pp. (No. 253). $3.50.

Basic Business and Consumer Education. Lessons are presented that are suitable for either basic business or consumer education courses, which aim at preparing students to use sound economic analysis in making decisions as consumers, producers, and citi-

zens. By James F. Niss, Judith Staley Brenneke, and John E. Clow. 1979, 110 pp. (No. 259). $6.00.

Give & Take. This is an audiovisual series on topics and concepts in personal economics for use in grades eight through ten. It consists of twelve 15-minute programs for use in consumer education, economics, business education, home economics, social studies, and other classes in which material on personal economics is presented. *Give & Take* is designed to help young people increase their understanding of economic concepts; improve their personal decision-making skills; and become more knowledgeable consumers, workers, and citizens. The series may be ordered directly from the Agency for Instructional Television, Box A, Bloomington, IN 47401. ¾-inch video cassettes (color), $90.00 per program; 16-mm film (color), $175.00 per program. *Important*: Ohio business teachers may be able to borrow this audiovisual series FREE OF CHARGE from the Ohio Council Centers. Contact the one nearest you for details. A teacher's guide is available to explain the rationale behind the lesson and present follow-up activities for use in the classroom. 1982, 40 pp. $1.45. Furthermore, a *test bank* of 120 questions on *Give & Take* is available. The questions relate to specific *Give & Take* programs and are keyed to concept categories and cognitive levels. (No. 332). $2.00.

Capital Investment. This set of two filmstrips—The Role of Capital Investment and The Problems of Capital Accumulation—covers the importance of capital in the nation's economic development. It explains the role of consumer saving in capital accumulation and how the economic decisions consumers make affect capital investment. 1975 (No. 229). $40.00 per set.

The Economics of Business. This filmstrip series presents the functions and working of the enterprise system in simple, easy-to-understand terms. It familiarizes the student with the economics of business and provides insights into economic issues pertaining to business. The filmstrips were produced by Educational Enrichment Materials in cooperation with the Joint Council, and the prices include the booklet and teacher's key. Business and the Public Interest. Filmstrip. 1973 (No. 192). $22.00. Economics and Business Enterprise Filmstrip. 1973 (No. 193). $22.00. Set of 2 filmstrips (No. 194). $40.00.

The Economics of Youth Unemployment. This is an article by Sar A. Levitan and Robert Taggart, with teaching suggestions by Frances Watkins. 1973 (No. 163). $1.25.

The Economic Role of Women. This article, by Frances Huntner, explores the role of women in the American economy and contains teaching suggestions by Bonnie J. Meszaros. 1977 (No. 252). $1.25.

Consumer and Personal Economics

Consumer Education and Economic Education in the Public Schools. Proceedings of a conference funded by the U.S. Department of Education at which leaders in consumer education considered what has been done and should be done to integrate economics into consumer education courses are presented. Among the topics covered are: the nature of economic education; the nature of consumer education; the curriculum units that combine the two; the economic content of printed materials for consumer education; and the evaluation of consumer and economic education. Edited by Judith Staley Brenneke. 1981, 228 pp. (No. 311). $5.00.

Integrating Consumer and Economic Education into the School Curriculum. A practical handbook arising out of the conference proceedings listed above presents orientation, guidelines, and methods for integrating economics into consumer education. It is funded by the U.S. Department of Education. By Judith Staley Brenneke. 1981, 42 pp. (No. 310). $1.00.

Materials in Personal Economics. This is a series of publications designed to develop consumers' understanding of the economics relevant to their needs. Each publication is a teacher's guide for introducing the economics of consumer decision-making into a specific curriculum or a personal economics course for junior and senior high schools and adult education classes. Teaching Personal Economics in the Home Economics Curriculum. 1971, 99 pp. (No. 125). $3.25. Teaching Personal Economics in the Business Curriculum. 1971, 92 pp. (No. 126). $3.25. Teaching a Course in Personal Economics. 1971, 69 pp. (No. 127). $3.25.

Catalogs

Audiovisual Materials for Teaching Economics. This third edition substantially expands and revises earlier editions and annotates more than 600 AV items for kindergarten through college. It describes the process for choosing the entries, lists items by grade level, and provides names and addresses of publishers and distributors. By Charlotte T. Harter, David M. Nelson, and John P. Farrell. 1980, 176 pp. (No. 288). $4.00.

A Guide to Games and Simulations for Teaching Economics. Since games and simulations are now widely accepted, this third edition puts more emphasis on the construction, selection, evaluation, and use of noncomputer games and less emphasis on how to play them. These 130 annotations contain lists of other catalogs, journals, and newsletters in the field, as well as the names and addresses of publishers of games and simulations. By Cathy R. Wilson and Mark C. Schug. Foreword by William E. Becker Jr. 1979, 93 pp. (No. 283). $2.50.

Secondary School
(Grades 7–12)

The Economics of Energy; A Teaching Kit (Grades 7–12). The kit begins with an economic analysis of the U.S. energy situation by George Horwich of Purdue University. It takes up energy use before 1970, the consequences of oil supply restrictions by the OPEC nations and the U.S. response, the effects of higher energy prices and of price controls on inflation, proposals for future energy policy, and other relevant matters. It also contains lessons and materials for classroom use, a reading for advanced students, pre- and post-tests for junior and senior high school students, and an annotated catalog of materials for teachers, all prepared by members of the Joint Council's network. 1983, 103 pp. (No. 329). $5.00.

Economics in the Business Curriculum. This composite of 22 articles deals with various aspects of teaching economics. They were selected from three publications that resulted from a collaboration of the National Business Education Association and the Joint Council. 1972, 96 pp. (No. 157). $3.75.

Trade Off: The Land Use Planning Game. This simulation allows players to analyze the costs, benefits, and trade-offs faced by communities, and to make appropriate decisions about them. Players decide whether land is suitable for business or residential use, hold public hearings on community planning options, and engage in production, employment, and consumption activities. The goal of the game is to develop a healthy society, economy, and environment. It is designed for participants of high school age and for adults (for 9 to 19 players). Playing time: 3 hours. A teacher/leader guide is included. Created by George L. Wyatt and Charlotte T. Harter. 1979. Send orders to Trade-Off Game, Extension Service, Oregon State University, Attn: Stockroom, Corvallis, OR 97331. $25.00 plus postage.

A Laboratory Approach to Economic Education. This manual for high school teachers suggests activities and outlines methods for utilizing community resources through field trips and other techniques that give students illustrations of how economic ideas and principles taught in the classroom relate to the economics of the real world. Step-by-step procedures for the activities are given. Developed by the Akron public schools. Revised and edited by Edward C. Prehn and George G. Dawson. 1975, 23 pp. (No. 227). $2.00.

Developing Economic Understanding Through General Business and Advanced Basic Business. These two booklets present selections from three business economics curricula on course designing. Edited by Charles R. Hopkins and Ray G. Price. 1975. Course Outlines and Instructional Guides, 42 pp. (No. 225). $2.25. Instructional Activities, 17 pp. (No. 226). $1.00.

Analyzing Inflation and Its Control: A Resource Guide. The overview contains a comprehensive discussion of the phenomenon of inflation and the various price indexes used to measure it. It takes up the causes of and cures for inflation, as well as recent inflation experiences in the United States and other countries. It also explores the role of money creation and government deficits; considers the effect of inflation on the economic behavior of individuals, businesses, and government; and analyzes—among other matters—which groups in the population lose or gain most from inflation. The guide contains instructional activities and materials for classroom use. By Michael K. Salemi and Sarah Leak. 1983. (No. 333). $4.00.

Analyzing Tax Policy: A Resource Guide. This guide takes up the role of taxes, the various kinds of taxes, the criteria for evaluating the merits and demerits of taxes, and some political aspects of taxation. It also covers recent developments including the property tax limitations in California mandated by "Proposition 13," and it contains overviews for teachers, for instructional activities, and for materials for classroom use. By Thomas R. Swartz, L. John Roos, and John S. Morton. 1979, 184 pp. (No. 266). $5.00.

Economic Education Experiences of Enterprising Teachers. Descriptions of award-winning entries and brief summaries of other ideas submitted in the National Awards Program for the Teaching of Economics are presented. It is prepared annually by the Joint Council and is currently funded by the International Paper Company Foundation. Back Issues: Volumes 10–18 (1971–72 through

1979–80). Order by volume number. Each volume $2.25. Volume 20: 1981–82. (No. 328). $2.25.

College

Resource Manual for Teacher Training Programs in Economics. This manual deals with methods of teaching economics at the college level and is designed to be used in programs for graduate students in economics, as well as for faculty members. Although topics from the typical introductory course are used in the demonstrations, the techniques can be employed in more advanced courses. It includes chapters on what constitutes an effective course, course planning, instructional objectives and goals, lecture techniques, use of videotapes, and evaluation instruments. Edited by Phillip Saunders, Arthur L. Welsh, and W. Lee Hansen. 1978, 438 pp. (No. 271). $10.00.

Analyzing Inflation and Its Control: A Resource Guide. This overview for secondary school teachers also serves as a convenient summary on the economics of inflation.

Analyzing Tax Policy: A Resource Guide. This overview for secondary school teachers also serves as a convenient summary of the elements of tax policy.

Alternative Approaches to the College Introductory Economics Course. Four important, innovative approaches to teaching the college introductory economics course that resulted from a project of the Joint Council in cooperation with the American Economic Association's Committee on Economic Education are included. Dissatisfaction with the introductory course has a long history, and it was not the purpose of this project to come up with the introductory course. The goal, rather, was to develop alternative syllabi that overburdened professors in two- and four-year colleges might find more useful than their current offerings, and to encourage others to improve and expand upon the Joint Council's efforts. The four syllabi offered here can be of great assistance to instructors in college who want to bring new dimensions to their own course. The syllabi are published as special editions of the *Journal of Economic Education* (JEE). JEE Special Issue No. 1. Syllabus for an "Issues Approach" to Teaching Economic Principles. By Richard H. Leftwich and Ansel M. Sharp, Oklahoma State University. 1974, 32 pp. (No. 209). $1.25.

JEE Special Issue No. 2. The Vanderbilt-JCEE Experimental Course in Elementary Economics. By Rendigs Fels, Vanderbilt University. 1974, 94 pp. (No. 210). $2.25.

JEE Special Issue No. 3. Toward a More Effective Economic Principles Class: The Florida State University Experience. By Barbara Tuckman and Howard Tuckman, Florida State University. 1975, 72 pp. (No. 211). $2.25.

JEE Special Issue No. 4. Experimental Course Development in Introductory Economics at Indiana University. By Phillip Saunders, Indiana University. 1976, 128 pp. (No. 212). $2.25.

Innovative Ideas in Introductory Economics. This resource contains winning entries at the college level in the National Awards Program for the Teaching of Economics. It also presents four prize-winners from previous years. Prepared by the JCEE and funded by the International Paper Company Foundation. Volume 3: 1980–81 (No. 322). $2.25. Volume 2: 1979–80 (No. 316). $2.25.

Tests

Junior High School Test of Economics (Grades 7–9). This is an evaluation instrument of 40 questions to measure learning of economic concepts in junior high school, which was classroom tested in seventh, eighth, and ninth grades in 22 school districts. The manual includes rationale for answers and norming data, suggestions for use of test, answer sheets, and scoring keys. 1974. This instrument may be especially useful to teachers of general business. Interpretive Manual and Rationale, 38 pp. (No. 200). $3.00. Test Booklets, package of 25 (No. 201). $6.00.

Test of Economic Literacy (Grades 11–12). This evaluation instrument, in two equivalent forms (A and B), is composed of 46 questions each to measure learning of economic concepts in senior high school. Content categories are based on the Master Curriculum Guide in Economics for the Nation's Schools, Part 1, A Framework for Teaching Economics: Basic Concepts. The test was nationally normed in the eleventh and twelfth grades of 40 school districts. The test manual includes discussion guides for each question, technical norming data, suggestions for use of the test, model answer sheets, and scoring keys. By John C. Soper. 1979. Discussion Guide and Rationale, 56 pp. (No. 270). $3.00. Test booklets, package of 25. Form A (No. 268). $6.00. Form B (No. 269). $6.00.

Test of Understanding in Personal Economics. This is an evaluation instrument of 50 multiple-choice questions normed in ninth- and twelfth-grade classes in social studies, business, and home economics. The manual gives explanations of concepts on which

questions are based, technical norming data, answer sheets, scoring keys, and rationale for correct responses. It has been developed as part of the Joint Council's Personal Economics series (see under Consumer and Personal Economics). 1971. Interpretive Manual and Discussion Guide, 28 pp. (No. 132). $3.00. Test booklets, package of 25 (No. 133). $6.00.

Federal Reserve Bank of New York

Many educational materials concerning economics are available from the Federal Reserve Bank of New York at no charge to teachers. Generally speaking, the first 100 copies of the New York Fed's publications are free unless otherwise noted. Additional free copies may be requested for in-house educational purposes.

Information concerning resources available from this source may be obtained either by writing a letter of inquiry to the Federal Reserve Bank of New York, Public Information Department, 33 Liberty Street, New York, NY 10045, or by contacting a nearby Ohio Council Center for Economic Education. Selected materials offered by the New York Fed include the following:

Publications

A Day at the Fed—This resource takes the reader on a behind-the-scenes, three-dimensional, what, how, and why tour of the New York Fed. The documentary-type narrative provides a panoramic view of the Bank's varied operations and its role in the Federal Reserve System and the economy. It is intended for high school, college, and adult students as a primer on the New York Fed's key role in the system. 1980. 32 pages.

Basics of Foreign Trade and Exchange—This publication explores some of the basic principles underlying current international economic news and explains in layman's language why international trade and investment take place. It is intended for high school seniors, college students and interested adults. 1980. 16 pages.

Coins and Currency—This review of American money from wampum to Federal Reserve notes shows photographs of the most important and unusual coins and notes in our history. It is intended for junior and senior high school students and interested adults. 1981. 24 pages.

Consumer Credit Information (CCI)—A series of informational items, including pamphlets, handbooks, bookmarks and a quiz,

dealing with federal regulations in the area of consumer credit protection, are included. The materials are designed to improve consumer awareness of credit rights and responsibilities with emphasis on credit costs, credit terminology and the effective use of credit.

I Bet You Thought—Banking and economic myths and misconceptions the public frequently regards as fact are debunked. The cartoon booklet also contains a brief quiz readers can take to pretest their knowledge of money and banking. 1982. 33 pages.

Making Money in Middle-Village—The use of this colorful poster with removable pieces and student activities helps to explain how commercial banks create money. It is intended for use in high school classes. 1981. Limit, one unit. School addresses only.

Statfacts: Understanding Federal Reserve Statistical Reports—This resource provides a general explanation of the meaning and relationship of terms used in major Federal Reserve statistical releases and is intended for college students and money market watchers. 1981. 80 pages.

The Arithmetic of Interest Rates—The concepts of simple and compound interest are applied to practical problems of determining the yield on government securities and the cost of consumer credit. 1981. 33 pages.

The Story of Checks and Electronic Payments—The story describes the origin and development of checks, the growth and automation of check collection, and the concept of an electronic payments system in a colorful cartoon format. 1981. 24 pages.

Alice in Debitland—This booklet introduces the technology of electronic fund transfer systems through the eyes of Lewis Carroll's Alice and addresses frequently asked questions regarding these transactions. 1980. 16 pages.

Film Aids

Checking Out Checks. This 6 minute program that illustrates budget balancing, check writing, and check clearing is designed for junior and senior high school students. It includes a full-color filmstrip-cassette, two spirit-duplicating activity masters, 35 copies of The Story of Checks, and a teacher's guide. $12.50.

Inflation: Taxing the American Dream. This 24-minute program examines inflation's causes, consequences, and cures and is designed for senior high school and freshman college students. It includes two full-color filmstrips, two audio cassettes, a teacher's

guide detailing the inflationary process, three spirit-duplicating activity masters, 35 copies of the story of inflation, and a 272-page Fed Readings on Inflation. $37.50.

International Economics. This audiovisual aid is a 14-minute program that examines why nations trade and explains foreign exchange rates and is designed for senior high school and freshman college students. It includes two full-color filmstrips, two audio cassettes, a teacher's guide plus lesson plans and glossaries, four spirit-duplicating activity masters, and a primer on foreign trade and exchange. $31.50.

Making Money Work. This package is an 11-minute program dealing with inflation, recession, and the Federal Reserve and is designed for senior high school and freshman college students. It includes a full-color filmstrip-cassette, a teacher's guide with glossary, and two spirit-duplicating activity masters. $18.50.

Conclusions

Ohio business teachers can be at the forefront of effective economic instruction if they are aware of and use the many resources available for their classrooms. The professionals at the Ohio Council Centers, the Joint Council of Economic Education, and the Federal Reserve Bank of New York stand ready with materials that enrich lessons and enhance learning. By contacting these resource persons, business educators will be better equipped to help their students learn how to function in the American economic system.

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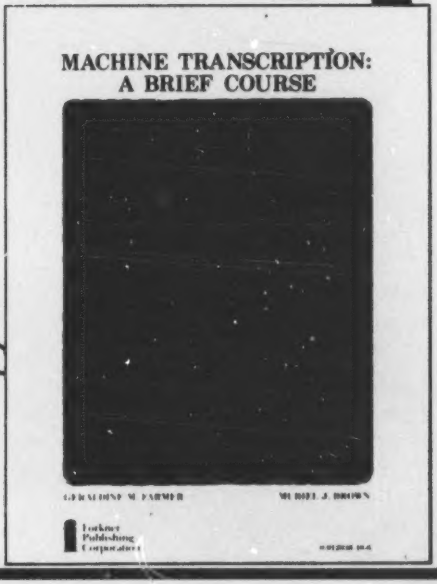

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Are Your Classroom Practices Psychologically Sound?

Lillian H. Chaney

> Effective teaching requires knowledge of the learning process, skill in arranging the conditions of learning, and skill in the process of interacting with students and manipulating human characteristics toward worthwhile ends (Robinson, 1979, p. 12).

AN UNDERSTANDING of the psychological principles underlying skill development is one of the most important characteristics of an effective teacher of business-skill subjects. Furthermore, the successful business teacher will attempt to make practical applications of such learning principles as readiness, reinforcement, transfer, and motivation to assure maximum learning and skill growth. A teacher's behavior and classroom practices can contribute significantly to the learning process, or they may have an adverse effect upon student performance. A close examination and evaluation of current classroom practices may reveal certain procedures that are inconsistent with recognized principles of learning.

To determine the extent to which you are adhering to (or violating) certain psychological principles of learning, take the following short quiz on the next page. If the practice is consistent with your beliefs and/or classroom practices, circle "Agree." If you do not condone the practice, circle "Disagree."

Did you disagree with all of the preceding practices with the exception of number four? If you did, good! If you indicated agreement with any of the practices other than the fourth one, perhaps you should re-evaluate some of your present practices. Let's consider the implications of each of the preceding practices.

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CLASSROOM PRACTICES QUIZ

1. Names of machine parts and paper insertion drills should be included on the first day of typewriting.	Agree	Disagree
2. Students who finish typing projects early should be given additional, more challenging problems to type.	Agree	Disagree
3. Beginning typewriting students should be taught on manual typewriters.	Agree	Disagree
4. Proofguides or guided prompts (miniatures of correctly typed problems) should be made available to beginning typewriting students.	Agree	Disagree
5. The day's assignment in typewriting should be written on the chalkboard.	Agree	Disagree
6. The teacher should preview all speed building material in advanced shorthand.	Agree	Disagree
7. A troublemaker should be seated at the front of the room so that the teacher can keep an eye on him/her.	Agree	Disagree
8. Students should exchange papers and grade them in class.	Agree	Disagree
9. Beginning shorthand students should close their texts while taking dictation.	Agree	Disagree
10. Tests on punctuation, such as spelling and word usage, should not be included in advanced shorthand.	Agree	Disagree

1. Indicating agreement with the first-day practice of teaching machine parts and other non-typing activities violates the principle of readiness. On the first day of typewriting, students are anxious to type; machine parts can be introduced gradually as needed. Prior to the first class meeting, it is suggested that paper be inserted into each typewriter, with margins and a few tabs set, to enable students to spend as much time as possible the first class meeting doing actual typing.

2. Assigning additional, more difficult typing problems to faster students who finish early is really a type of punishment or negative reinforcement. Students who finish before the time allotted should be rewarded by permitting them to work on a project of their own choice such as typing a paper for another class.

3. Providing initial typewriting instruction on manual typewriters violates the principle of simple-to-complex progression. In addition, the principle of maximum transfer of training is involved since few business offices now use manual typewriters.

4. Providing guided prompts for problem work in beginning typewriting is consistent with the principle of guidance, which is appropriate at the elementary level. Teachers should, however, gradually move to confirmation (feedback immediately following the completion of the problem) at the intermediate and advanced levels. Guidance is appropriate initially, but only to establish a pattern of correct responses. At the advanced level, confirmation is more effective.

5. Writing the day's assignment in typewriting on the chalkboard fails to condition students to the real world of work. Classroom practices, especially in the business skills courses, should replicate as closely as possible the practices followed in business offices. Since instructions in an office are usually verbal, not written, it is important to condition students to respond to oral instructions.

6. Continuing to preview all speed building material in advanced shorthand is using guidance beyond the period of maximum effectiveness. Teachers should begin to switch from guidance to confirmation at the intermediate level of skill courses. Feedback at the advanced level should be largely confirmation.

7. Seating a troublemaker at the front of the room simply reinforces inappropriate behavior. A student who laughs, talks loudly, and disrupts the class is usually seeking attention. Seating this student at the front of the room gives him/her the desired attention and tends to reinforce disruptive behavior. Seat such a student away from those who are easily influenced by this type of behavior.

8. Instructing students to exchange papers and grade them in class does not provide the correct form of reinforcement. The student is not being reinforced for his or her own performance but rather is receiving knowledge of another person's performance. It is difficult to justify this practice except perhaps when teaching proofreading by having one person read aloud to another. If papers are graded in class, each student should grade his/her own. If this is not practical (as in grading theory tests in shorthand), the teacher should do the grading.

9. Instructing beginning shorthand students to close their textbooks during dictation does not permit them to benefit from the immediate feedback of seeing the correct shorthand outline when books remain open. Teachers who are concerned that students

may simply copy the shorthand from the textbook, rather than writing from dictation, can usually rectify the situation by changing an occasional word.

10. Continuing to drill and test on punctuation and spelling in advanced shorthand can be justified because of the transfer effect on mailable letters. Scores on these quizzes should not, of course, figure significantly in the final grade as the major emphasis at the advanced level should be on mailable letters and speed.

The activities included in the preceding quiz are just samples of classroom practices that are frequently reported by students or observed by administrators and fellow teachers. Often teachers do not stop to think about the psychological implications of certain practices. For example, if you permit make-up exams when students are tardy or absent, you are "rewarding" these behaviors, and they are likely to recur. (You are also "punishing" yourself for the student's behavior by taking extra time to prepare an alternate form of the test and finding a time convenient to administer the exam.) In addition, you are giving the student individual attention, which is rewarding for many students. (Obviously, if this is a school requirement, you have no alternative.) Careful attention to the psychological soundness of everyday classroom practices may mean the difference between effective and ineffective teaching.

The effective business teacher will take an active role in the learning process and will make every effort to understand and apply the psychological principles underlying skill development to assure optimum skill growth and maximum transfer to job requirements in the business world.

FOOTNOTE

[1]Robinson, J. W. et. al. (1979). *Typewriting: Learning and Instruction.* Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co.

Utilization of Communication–Management Skills for Employee Training

Edna Cole Ward and Mary Evelyn Collins

MANAGEMENT SKILLS and communications skills are inseparable, if not synonymous. To better understand both the process of communication and the process of management, one must know how to avoid the interruptions in the lines of communication. The manager must understand his role as a communicator, just as he must understand his role as a manager.

Having the title of "manager" does not necessarily mean that one can "manage"; similarly, knowing how to write or speak does not insure that effective communication occurs. Breakdowns or interruptions in communication are often disturbances in human relationships resulting from misunderstandings initiated by a failure to recognize potential problems or to acknowledge existing problems. In addition to this initial failure, there sometimes follows the added failure to properly evaluate the causes of the communication problem. This comes from a misinterpretation of the causal factors or a lack of understanding of them. Although breakdowns of this sort can occur at any level of the organization, mid- and upper-level management most decidedly can influence lines of communication. In his article, "Brother to the Ox," Howard R. Smith suggests that managers should become more aware of their relationships with employees, especially in the area of communicating a paternalistic posture toward them. Managers at all organizational levels should never forget that all people are human beings and must never be ignored (Smith, 1975).

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To establish a basis for questioning the management/communication process, the following example can be used to decide which communication/management skills should be utilized in handling the situation:

> An employee submits a suggestion which he feels will reduce costs within his division. As a manager, however, you must tell him that his suggestion, although worthy of recognition, cannot be facilitated because of company policy. What actions should be taken?

Before any action is taken, several factors should be examined:

1. How valuable is the employee to the company?
2. What is the employee's attitude toward the company as a general rule (negative or positive)?
3. What are the employee's needs? Why was the suggestion made?
4. How sensitive or "thick-skinned" is the employee?
5. How can management tactfully turn down the employee's suggestion, yet maintain goodwill with the employee?
6. How can management be sure that the employee personally does not feel rejected because his suggestion was rejected?
7. How can management assure the employee that his ideas and suggestions are valuable, and let him know that he is an integral part of the organization?
8. How can management turn down this particular suggestion without discouraging future suggestions from the employee?

As mentioned previously, management must keep in mind that the employee is a human being. As Smith pointed out, American workers have "done a lot of growing up as human beings" (Smith, 1975). Management must not make the assumption that the employee does not have the ability to understand complex communication and to give feedback. Smith warns that management should not build its communication around a "stupidity assumption."

In approaching the given situation, there are obvious evaluations to be made: (1) the value of the worker to the organization; (2) his ability and attitude on the job daily; (3) the maturity of the employee as a communicator; and (4) the personal investment the employee has in the suggestion. These areas could be evaluated only by having more than an example situation, but each manager must make an effort to try to see the situation from the standpoint of the employee.

After these obvious considerations are dealt with, the manager can move on to planning his communicative approach. In this planning, several suggestions emerge from studying this particular example:

1. Management should examine some criteria for rejecting a suggestion or in communicating "bad news" of any kind to an

employee. This can be accomplished through the use of a "positive" rather than a negative approach. Instead of simply stating that the employee's suggestion has been rejected, begin with a statement that the suggestion is a good one; and give the reasons behind the company policy that do not permit implementing the suggestion.

2. Here are some general suggestions emphasizing the positive approach: maintain an openness with the employee; be approachable. Communication should be on a face-to-face basis—open communication with no notes being taken so candid expression can be elicited. Through face-to-face communication, there is less chance of "noise" or distortion caused by misunderstood messages or overriding assumptions. If immediate feedback occurs, then misunderstanding and prior assumptions can be cleared up before the whole process of this communicative situation becomes injected with "noise." Both the manager and the employee are able to experience the advantages and disadvantages of each other's paralinguistics and kinesic behavior. That is, both can hear the tones and vocal emphasis placed on words and phrases (paralinguistics) and see the language of each other's bodies (kinesics). Vocal intonations are very important in showing patience, understanding, confidence, and respect. Noise may occur because management, which may be more experienced, sees greater implications of the suggested change while the employee sees smaller implications. The manager, however, should not assume that the employee cannot understand these greater implications.

   An advantage of oral communication is that it operates on both verbal and nonverbal levels, using speech, sight, hearing, and touch as inter-related elements in the process. Thus oral communication appeals to more senses than does written communication. Written communication too often seems impersonal since it only operates on the verbal level. The interworkings of the vocal/visual/audio/tactile channels of communication present a more personal atmosphere.

3. Boost the employee's self esteem by recognizing him as a valuable asset to the organization. If the employee does appeal to you as a valuable asset and his suggestion is good, perhaps a new evaluation of the employee is in order. His skills might be reassessed. Be sensitive to the needs of the employee; be empathetic.

4. Ask and discuss with the employee the possibility that the suggestion could be modified to conform to company policy. If the suggestion is ahead of its time, perhaps discussing its implementation in the future is in order. In many cases, timing could be the negating factor. The employee, in this case, should not feel that his suggestion will be forgotten.
5. Make the employee feel free to discuss further recommendations and/or suggestions with management. Employees can readily perceive honesty and sincerity. The employee involved in the communication process will also watch for variations from a pattern of honesty and open sincerity.
6. Monitor non-verbal communication to convey acceptance and warmth to the employee. Use the smile, good eye contact, and warm handshake to convey positive feedback to the employee. Be aware of non-verbal cues from the worker such as reluctance to shake hands, lack of direct eye contact, distance kept between the two of you, or any other cues that would indicate reticence, shyness, or awkwardness in the situation.

   Non-verbal communication has a greater impact on the communication process than most managers realize. According to Albert Mehrabian's study of the impact of communication, 7 percent of the impact resulted from what was said, 38 percent from how it was said, and 55 percent from how a person looked while saying it (Mehrabian, 1968).

   Face-to-face communication also enables the manager to study the employee's reaction—hostility, rejection, indifference, acceptance, and even silence. These reactions could not be observed if the manager relied on a written memo to communicate the rejection of the suggestion. The manager can sense these reactions in the face-to-face communication situation and can help resolve any negative feelings by trying to move ahead to motivate the employee to produce more quality suggestions.
7. Sit down in an informal setting and talk with the employee about his good work. Compliment him for his inititative in submitting the suggestion. From your evaluation of the nonverbal in Step 6, you can verbalize your reinforcement of the employee's initiative.

   Realizing that negativism can destroy good human relations and, therefore, good communication, the manager should examine his own attitude before and during the meeting with the employee. Predisposed attitudes are a form of noise that interrupt the flow of clear communication. The manager who

seeks to be an effective communicator and effective manager will take note of the following:

A. Avoid mentioning company policy in a context that implies a negative connotation. Explain why the company policy was made.

B. Don't write a brief memorandum to tell the employee that his suggestion could not be utilized. Too often memoranda lack adequate explanations and do not provide for immediate feedback in all channels of communication.

C. Never ignore the employee's suggestion. The employee took the time and initiative to make the suggestion. He, therefore, deserves a response (even if negative) and recognition for his effort (Gimmill, 1970).

D. Never embarrass, humiliate, or ridicule an employee for submitting an impractical suggestion. Such poor management practices can lead not only to worker alienation and low morale, but also to various mental conditions, such as depression, which are often manifested by physical symptoms.

Use of these suggestions cannot guarantee that all people can "manage" employees. However, more successful, positive human relations, achieved through good communication skills, will result if managers would use the preventive measures emphasized above. Managers should not be afraid to examine their styles. Alice G. Sargent's discussion of androgynous managers points out that technology, job stress, and the increasing number of women reaching management level positions have caused a general re-examination of styles of management. Therefore, one can deduce that if management in general can alter or learn to alter management styles, then the individual manager can alter his behavior, especially in communications, by monitoring and practicing good communication skills (Sargent, 1981).

All managers, whether good or bad, have a better chance of success as managers if they recognize employees as human beings who can think and communicate with the manager. If the manager can make the effort to communicate on the personal, one-to-one, face-to-face basis, then that manager really has more feedback from the employee to assess the communication process and to help motivate the employee. Each person involved in the communication situation reacts and sends messages or cues in relation to his perception of the total communication setting. The manager must be aware of the elements that would become noise to the

communication situation and interrupt the flow of messages and feedback, thus causing misunderstanding.

Preventing a misunderstanding is much easier than correcting one. The manager/communicator would be wise to observe the following points:

1. Be sure you are not too mentally and physically tired to deal with the employee.
2. If you need help, forget your ego and seek help in handling the problem. Talking through the problem with a superior, a peer, or even a spouse often helps.
3. Leave personal problems behind; do not project them on the employee.

These suggestions emphasize that the manager must manage himself as well as his employees. It may seem to be advantageous to appear hardcore, objective, and dominating, but often better results come from incorporating the qualities of empathy, understanding, and openness. Developing communication skills using all the channels available to the manager will assist him in the management of his own range of personal characteristics and emotions. Just as Smith observed that the American worker has grown as a human being, so must the American manager grow as a communicator.

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Professional Growth is a Must for Secretaries

Carol A. Jones

ARE YOU *TRAINING* your students to pursue careers in the business world? Or are you *teaching* them to work at a routine job? Do you encourage professional growth and development once they are in the business world? Or do you view their experiences with you as their terminal education?

Business educators need to break away from the traditional subject matter presented and train future *professional* secretaries. They must train their students to think and to look beyond their skills for an understanding of business organization and management. Many office workers never realize how their particular jobs affect the overall activities of their company. Perhaps they were led to believe that as long as they had typing, shorthand, note-taking skills, or even word processing skills, their business training was complete.

Because secretaries have traditionally received training in this manner and because they never developed the professional attitudes that other business people have (i.e. accountants, purchasing agents), they have never been accorded the respect from the business community that they deserve. They haven't thought of themselves as professionals; therefore, no one else has thought of them as professionals. But since they are part of the *secretarial profession*, we need to start developing professionally-oriented attitudes in the classroom. Let's begin to acquaint students with some of the options available to them once they are employed full-time.

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Secretarial Seminars

How many major corporations who regularly conduct seminars for management, or pay travel and expenses for executives to attend conventions, do the same for their secretarial staff? How many secretaries have requested these privileges? In most cases, the secretary is not aware of the prospective convention; and in other cases, where the secretary is aware, he or she may not be confident or assertive enough to request such privileges.

It's only been recently that some private management consultants have realized the potential for professional growth seminars for secretaries. The American Center for Management Development and other associations are conducting workshops for secretaries throughout the country. These are usually one-day sessions held at a central location. Topics range from planning and organizing to using successful delegation. This is certainly one option secretaries can choose for professional growth. Attending seminars will also enable them to meet with other secretaries and to develop valuable communications networks that offer avenues of professional information flow.

Professional Secretaries International (PSI) provides another option for secretaries to grow and develop professionally. PSI, which was formerly known as The National Secretaries Association (International), was founded in 1942 for the purpose of upgrading the standards of secretarial performance through continuing education programs. Not only do the National and International Divisions conduct conventions and seminars devoted to professional growth and development, but local chapters, such as the Forest City Chapter in Cleveland, and state divisions, such as the Ohio Division based in Columbus, also conduct educational activities for their members.

Secretarial Journals

In addition, PSI publishes *The Secretary* journal, which is a leading publication among many in office work. These journals offer the kind of information that can make the difference between the mediocre office employee and the "super" secretary who is on the way to supervisory and management positions. Articles ranging from secretarial strategies to computer software are presented.

Encouraging students to participate in PSI, at least at the local level, and to read *The Secretary* journal should be a part of the curriculum regardless of the level being taught. High school, adult education, community college, or even university-level sec-

retarial students need to become aware of the opportunities available to them once they are on the job. If they don't learn about professional opportunities as students, as employees, they may never realize their benefits as employees.

Certified Professional Secretary

All secretaries should aspire to attain the Certified Professional Secretary's rating. Such a goal should be another part of the curriculum. In order to attain the coveted rating, called the Emblem of Excellence in the secretarial profession, secretaries must meet certain education and work experience requirements. If they are high school graduates, six years of verified secretarial experience are required. If the candidate has one year of post high school formal education, five years of verified experience are required. With two years of post high school formal education, four years of verified experience are required; and with three years, three years of verified experience are the requirement. If the candidate has four years or more of post high school formal education, then the requirement for verified secretarial experience is two years. A full-time student may qualify to take the Certified Professional Secretary's Examination prior to meeting the experience requirement but may not obtain certification until all experience is satisfactorily completed.

Besides the education and experience requirement, a secretary must pass the Certified Professional Secretary's Examination (CPS Exam.). The CPS Exam. is administered nationally by the Institute for Certifying Secretaries, a division of Professional Secretaries International. Each year the examination is given the first Friday and Saturday of May at various testing locations around the country. The Institute informs prospective candidates of these locations through the *Capstone* (obtained by requesting a copy from PSI Headquarters, 2440 Pershing Road, Crown Center G10, Kansas City, MO 64108–2560). Much of the examination covers common office experience already familiar to the good secretary. Some of the material covered on the examination, however, must be obtained through formal education and informal readings on current developments in the field.

The six-part examination includes: Behavioral Science in Business, Business Law, Economics and Management, Accounting, Office Administration and Communication, and Office Technology. The Institute will supply the prospective candidate (for a small fee) with a CPS outline and bibliography, a sampling of questions, and a time schedule for CPS review. In addition, Wiley

Publishing Co. is now selling a series of modules called *CPS Review* to assist in preparing for the examination. Courses offered at the community college and university levels, as well as a review of textbooks in each of the fields of the examination, help insure success. At the same time, this study also contributes to the professional growth and development of the secretary.

The Institute recently published results of a survey (*The Secretary*, 1983) in which the salary of secretaries with the CPS rating was $2,250 per year *higher* than the average salary of secretaries without the rating. The survey showed that less than one percent of all secretaries in the United States have earned the CPS designation. In fact, as of May, 1983, only 17,257 secretaries have achieved the rating since it was originated in 1951.

Each year the Institute summarizes by states the results of the CPS examination. Ohio ranks sixth in the nation with 751 CPSs. The only states with more secretaries who have achieved the CPS rating are Texas, California, Tennessee, Illinois, and New York. But 751 is not a statistic we should be proud of; we should be striving for much more.

Conclusions

Maybe some of our former students now working full-time have not attempted to achieve the CPS rating; perhaps they have never heard of it. Maybe some of them go to work each day, do their jobs the same way they do them every day, and go home. Maybe none of our former students have ever gone to their managers and requested permission to attend a secretarial seminar or a PSI chapter meeting at the company's expense.

Maybe we have been remiss in incorporating the importance of professional growth and development in our curriculum. Maybe we have not done our part in developing the motivation necessary for our students to continually develop their potential and to achieve that emblem of excellence in the profession. Once secretaries think of themselves as professionals, they will begin to obtain the respect from the rest of the business community that they deserve.

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Preparing Business Students for the Automated Office

Rose Mariani Cost and Eva Pound Bickle

BUSINESS TEACHERS SHOULD PREPARE students with realistic job-entry education as well as a general and economic education. Students should be made aware of new developments and changes in today's offices because of the impact of automation. The "automated office of the future" exists in many businesses today because of technological changes that are occurring (Denick, 1979).

Realistic Job Preparation

Automation, according to management, will enable many offices to increase productivity, cut administrative costs, and standardize many operating procedures and policies. Business teachers should train future office workers to work efficiently in this ever-changing realm of office automation. Students should be exposed to word processing's basic concepts and terminology and be given "hands-on" training practice if word processing equipment is available. Outside vendors demonstrating word processing equipment and guest speakers can also provide business students with a basic understanding of word processing components, including types of equipment available and basic operations. Students should be urged to attend word processing workshops and equipment demonstrations as part of their homework or outside-of-class assignments.

Cooperative Education

Realistic job preparation for students in business education need not be limited to the confines of the classrooms. Whenever

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possible, let the community be your classroom. Many businesses equipped with word processing equipment should be utilized for student training stations. This type of experience would provide business students with the opportunity to observe the capabilities of such equipment, the utilization of people, and the workflow and procedures in a real office setting. Community experiences, exploring the new concepts of automation, are valuable in preparing students to make career decisions.

Students who are provided this cooperative real-life experience with the community would also become aware of the practical side of a business organization and how it functions, as well as becoming aware of the results of today's office automation. Students would experience, firsthand, the importance of human relations and responsibility by sharing the workload in the "real world of work."

Other Skills and Abilities Needed

Decision-making skills, problem-solving techniques, good work habits, a positive attitude, and language arts skills—good grammar, punctuation, and spelling—are some of the specific skills that should be stressed in the classroom.

Curriculum Revisions

Business teachers must strive to meet the needs of today's rapidly changing office technology. They must review the goals and performance objectives of their business curriculum and make necessary revisions. Business students should be trained both with technical skills and non-technical skills, which will provide them with a smooth transition from the classroom to the automated office.

Conclusion

Office automation has created many new career options for business students specifically trained to work in this new environment. Teachers should strive to provide their business students with the necessary skills and attitudes demanded of them by managers in today's ever-changing office.

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Developing a Competitive Edge in Resumé Writing

Vickie Johnson Stout and James D. Good

TODAY'S JOB MARKET is a competitive one in which numerous applicants vie for most job openings. An apparent abundance of qualified applicants is reflected in the fact that over-qualified and "more expensive" individuals are often turned away. In essence, applicants must *work* at standing out among their competitors.

Getting a "foot in the door" for most applicants involves the development of employment papers that sell. The most valuable commodity that anyone ever markets is oneself; yet, many individuals throw together employment papers as they would a hoagie sandwich.

Effective marketing of any product requires adequate planning and preparation. Campbell's Soup requires as much skill in marketing its products as it does in the development of tasty recipes. Professional marketing personnel design labels to attract attention and evoke sales. By the same token, job applicants should keep in mind that employers tend to look for the individual who stands out as exceptional. In most cases, employment papers serve as a person's representative and provide a lasting first impression. Few people would intentionally send mediocre representatives to plead their cases. Applicants, however, do just that when they send out hastily put together or poorly prepared employment papers. Average-looking employment papers do not present a person as above average.

A professional approach to the development of employment papers is crucial today. Without it a person may be viewed as just another applicant.

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Employment Papers

Employment papers generally include a letter of application, employment application forms made available by a prospective employer, and a resume. Letters of application and application forms generally introduce an applicant. Both of these documents can and do set the tone for how an applicant is received. A letter of application should be concise and well organized, and application forms should be carefully and thoroughly completed. Both documents should be letter-perfect, truthful, and appealing.

Both kinds of documents can be used to demonstrate skill in written communication, neatness, accuracy, and organization. An applicant is limited in opportunities to shine via the letter of application and the application form in that the information contained in either tends to be standardized. A well-prepared resume, on the other hand, provides a vehicle that may present the applicant as exceptional.

Distinguishing Features

Applicants can design their resumes to stand out as distinctive. Major factors may include innovative formatting, contrasting type styles, and unique paper selection. In addition, inclusion of action words and professional packaging of papers should never be overlooked.

Innovative Formatting. Employers typically spend very little time looking over a resume during initial applicant screening. Obviously, there is not much time in which to make an impression. Perusing the vital components of the resume is all that most employers can accomplish quickly. The saying "It is what's up front that counts" appears to be true. For maximum effectiveness, applicants must position their most vital information near the beginning of the resume. Some make the mistake of giving their Personal Information such as address and phone number in the opening. Personal Information is of little concern to an employer unless the applicant is among the finalists contending for a job. Figure 1 provides examples of information that should appear early in a resume. Note that specific employment interests or career objectives should be provided.

Critical information such as Work Experience or Education is most effectively placed near the beginning. Other information should be organized on the resume in priority order—from most to least important. Personal information should appear near the end of the resume.

YOUR NAME
EMPLOYMENT INTERESTS
EDUCATION
WORK EXPERIENCE
MEMBERSHIPS
HONORS AND AWARDS
PERSONAL INFORMATION
REFERENCES

Figure 1. Information Included in a Resume

Placing information in reverse chronological order under each heading is an effective technique, making current or more recent information dominant. Most individuals grow in their careers over time, and their more recent involvements serve as milestones of growth, as well as indicators of future potential. Past endeavors are important in that they serve as benchmarks against which growth is measured or leadership is tracked. Employers should not be forced to wade through a resume looking for current positions, recent development, or indicators of professional growth. An example of reverse chronological ordering of information appears in Figure 2. Data shown in Figure 2 have been blocked under column headings for additional emphasis and ease of reading.

ROSE ANN J. PEMBERTON

EMPLOYMENT INTERESTS

Systems Analysis, Information Systems Management, and Applications Management

EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Completion Date
B. S.	Tennessee Technological University Cookeville, TN Major: Business Administration	June 1977
Diploma	Oak Ridge High School Oak Ridge, TN	June 1973

Figure 2. Resume Excerpt Showing Reverse Chronological Order

A wealth of valuable information about an applicant can be buried in a poorly formatted resume. Data presented in continuous lines make reading more difficult, as depicted in Figure 3.

ROSE ANN J. PEMBERTON

EMPLOYMENT INTERESTS

Systems Analysis, Information Systems Management, and Applications Programming

EDUCATION

B.S., Tennessee Technological University, Cookeville, TN, June 1977, Major: Business Administration, Grade Average: 3.8/4.0

Diploma, Oak Ridge High School, Oak Ridge, TN, June 1973

Figure 3. Resume Excerpt Showing Continuous-Line Entries

Contrasting Type Styles. The various parts of a resume can be made more noticeable if contrasting types styles and headings are used. The applicant's name should appear in the most dominant type style or heading used in the resume. Appropriate headings and subheadings should be used to classify and organize the various parts of a resume. Retyped- or multiple-typed headings can also add emphasis.

Unique Paper Selection. Another resume consideration is paper selection. Paper selection is not critical in selling oneself, but it can contribute to the development of documents that look professional. Good quality bond paper should be used. Pastel-colors are preferred; they help one's papers to stand out among other papers on an employer's desk. Pink should not be used because of its feminine connotation. Orange should be avoided because it appears harsh. Identical paper should be used for the resume and letter of application.

Action Words. Action words add strength and specificity to information shared in a resume. The use of active verbs indicates that the applicant has performed or is performing specific tasks, and the applicant is projected as an action-oriented person. Figure 4 shows how action words can be used to describe responsibilities assumed in positions held to date. Note that responsibilities of the currently held position are expressed in present tense. Formerly held position responsibilities are expressed using past tense.

ROSE ANN J. PEMBERTON

WORK EXPERIENCE

Position	Where	When	Responsibilities
Senior Programmer/ Analyst	General Dynamics Fort Worth, TX	1980- Present	Supervise five programmer/analysts and develop data bases for Accounting and Inventory Management Departments
Programmer/ Analyst	Voit Technical Services Fort Worth, TX	1977- 1979	Developed a payroll system; wrote programs in Pascal, COBOL and RPG using IBM 3033 hardware

MEMBERSHIPS

Office Systems Research Association
Administrative Management Society
Civil Air Patrol
American Legion Auxiliary

HONORS AND AWARDS

Outstanding Young Woman of America, 1982–1983
President of Student Government Association, Tennessee Technological University, 1976–1977
Senator of Student Government Association, Tennessee Technological University, 1975–1976

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Current Address	Permanent Address
109 Hickory Place Fort Worth, TX 77602 (817) 743-1098	750 Hathburn Drive Rockwood, TN 37854 (615) 354-3051

REFERENCES

Mr. Fred Walter Information Systems Manager General Dynamics Fort Worth, TX (817) 742-1988	Dr. Sharon Good Assistant Professor Tennessee Technological University Cookeville, TN (615) 542-4124	Mr. Paul J. Johnson Senior Analyst Voit Technical Services Fort Worth, TX (817) 743-5719

Figure 4. Resume Excerpt Showing Use of Action Words to Describe Work Experience

Professional Packaging of Papers. Final attention given to resume preparation involves packaging the resume for mailing to a prospective employer. Many applicants make the mistake of folding their resumes so that they can be mailed in a business-size envelope. Even the most impressive resume can look a bit wilted after having been folded. A large envelope should be used so that multiple copies of the resume, as well as the letter of application, remain neat and unwrinkled. Several copies of the resume should be sent in the event that several people may be involved in the employee selection process. If applicants leave the responsibility of resume duplication to the employer, they run the risk of additional copies being inferior to the original. Besides, pastel-colored resumes can yield dark, shaded copies on some copying equipment. A thin sheet of cardboard paper can be inserted in the envelope to prevent unnecessary bending of employment materials as they are transported through the mail.

Conclusion

In reflection, the person most likely to be considered for a job opportunity is the one who develops a competitive edge through careful planning and preparation. Professional marketing of the individual—experiences and abilities—is crucial. This edge may be achieved through employment papers that are striking but business like. The resume provides the best opportunity for an applicant to be presented as exceptional, and several techniques may be used to design the resume that stands out as unique, informative, and attractive.

It is suggested that the individual allow ample time to develop a resume. Imagination should be used in presenting a professional image, and there should be no errors or oversights. The results will be worth the effort.

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Evaluating Production Potential on Word Processing Equipment

Rose Kuceyeski

"Why didn't my text paginate?"
"The printer needs a ribbon!"
"The equipment won't power on!"
"What happened to my document? It was just on the display."
"The printer is printing gobbledygook—again!"

Above are just a few of the questions and statements a word processing instructor deals with during a typical day. Someone is always running to you for supplies, help on the system, and answers. Teaching word processing isn't easy; however, it can be rewarding especially when you observe the awe on students' faces when you show them how to swap paragraphs in 15 seconds or when you see the relief and joy on students' faces when the application actually worked correctly!

Problems do exist when teaching word processing. I've found the major problem is evaluating students' understanding of the system. Since you can't always be with students during lab time, evaluating them on the equipment involves more than just objective testing. Do you teach a basic word processing training course where students learn the basics of the system? If so, you realize the importance of providing feedback on students' progress. But how? The following evaluating system works for me, and you might find this method a place to start in helping you evaluate your word processing students. Based on a ten-week quarter I determine the students' grades this way:

Weekly quizzes (written/oral)	25%
Final exam (objective test covering all machine applications)	25%
Observations	50%

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The first time I taught basic training I found that anyone can memorize and pass the objective testing and, yet, still not be proficient in operating the system. Isn't proficiency on the system the most important asset of a word processing operator? Because it is, I instituted *observations*.

The following chart is one example of an observation form. Of course, this form will vary depending on the equipment you use. During the ten-week period, I observe each student three or four times. While I'm observing the student, the rest of the class works on review sheets. Each observation, depending on the student's proficiency, lasts 10 to 20 minutes. During this time, I talk with the students and find out how they think they're progressing. It's also a time to be personal with the student. The observation is conducted in a manner similar to a performance appraisal interview.

If you have an evaluation system that works, I'd appreciate your sharing it with me.

OBSERVATION III	5 Knowledge, superior; performs functions accurately without assistance or hesitation the first time; attitude, positive.	4 Knowledge, above average; performs functions satisfactorily, with little or no hesitation; attitude, cooperative.	3 Knowledge, adequate; performs functions with some hesitation; attitude, indifferent.	2 Knowledge, minimal; performs functions with much hesitation; attitude, uncaring.	0 Knowledge, questionable; cannot perform functions; attitude, negative.
1. UNDERSCORING					
2. CENTERING					
3. CLEAR TABS					
4. SET TABS					
5. DECIMAL TAB					
6. CHANGE MARGINS (LINE LENGTH)					
7. PRINTING DOCUMENT FROM DISC					
8. PRINTING DOCUMENT FROM DISPLAY					
9. SAVE AND RECALL					
10. RETRIEVE DOCUMENT					
TOTAL POINTS III =					

Shorthand: Time to Take Inventory

LeRoy A. Brendel

THE SOOTHSAYERS are at it again: "Shorthand is dead; it's being replaced with electronic processing and computers," and they point to decreased shorthand enrollments and dropout rates as evidence. On the other hand, several business educators have made a careful analysis of the situation and have presented their findings to the contrary (Johnson, 1982), (Schimmel, 1982) and (Condon, 1983).

The following paragraphs offer a number of classroom-proven teaching techniques that (a) take shorthand out of the field of an exact science, (b) make learning more interesting, meaningful, and realistic, and (c) increase student holding power.

1. COURSE GOAL. The points where theory, pretranscription, and transcription begin and end are not distinguishable. Daily previews and postviews provide constant review, recall, reinforcement, and refinement of the shorthand principles. From the moment students begin to read complete thoughts, at least three of the estimated 61 percent non-typewriting activities (Jester, 1959) involved in transcription surface: punctuating, spelling, and paragraphing. It is from this moment, with the gradual merging of the *non-typewriting* activities with the estimated 39 percent of the *typewriting* activities, that the blended activity *transcription* eventually evolves.

From day one, shorthand should not be thought of as made up of segments: theory, pretranscription, and transcription. Instead, shorthand should be taught as one whole segment with one overall end goal: *transcription*, the production of mailable transcripts[1] that are correct, clear, complete, courteous, considerate, concise,

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coherent, and conversational (the C-qualities of practical, effective correspondence).

2. THEORY PRESENTATION. It is quite possible that presenting the theory lessons too rapidly leads to student insecurity, frustration, and dropping out, in spite of teacher assurances that each succeeding lesson automatically reviews, recalls, refines, and reinforces all preceding lessons.

One tested, workable approach is to present the principles of each lesson over two days, not one; and if the lesson is long or difficult, over three days.

First Day. Teacher chalkboard demonstration of new lesson with students reading and spelling, no penmanship. Homework: read textbook illustrations of new principles, no writing.

Second Day. (a) Repeat *First Day* presentation; (b) reinforce lesson with penmanship; (c) homework: reading material only, no penmanship on this material; (d) present *First Day*, next lesson.

3. WRITTEN HOMEWORK. Written homework through the first 10 theory lessons should be limited strictly to classwork; however, beginning with Lesson 11, written homework should be assigned from 10 lessons back from the class presentation lesson. To illustrate: when presenting Lesson 11, assign as written homework the theory words of Lesson 1 and one-half to two-thirds of the reading material for dictation and transcription the following class period.

Reasons: (a) skills and knowledge of preceding 10 theory lessons have had a chance to take hold before stressing their use in dictation and transcription; (b) students are better equipped to write transcribable outlines; (c) students feel they are learning, and this feeling of success is a strong motivator to continue in shorthand.

4. CHECKING HOMEWORK. Written homework need not always be physically checked. Checking can be done by having students read or transcribe from their notebooks and, on occasion, by having them read or transcribe "cold notes" from a back dated assignment. (For this reason, homework should not be handed in on loose sheets of paper to be recorded as having been done, then destroyed.)

A second technique is to hand each student a duplicated copy of the assigned homework with all punctuation marks, except periods, omitted and with certain outlines underscored for spelling. Under time, have students edit the duplicated material, insert

and circle necessary punctuation, and write the correct English spelling above the underscored outlines.

Following Theory. Assign reading and writing material of each succeeding lesson with the following instructions: (a) read the material until it can be read fluently; (b) write the material in shorthand once from the plates; (c) write the material a second time from the printed transcript, omitting all punctuation except periods; (d) edit the second writing, inserting and circling necessary punctuation; (e) check the edited copy against the shorthand plates for accuracy of outlines and punctuation.

5. TRANSCRIBABLE NOTES. Most students do assigned reading and written homework simultaneously. As a result, they are not fully aware of what they are reading or writing, and they write shorthand outlines that are not transcribable and outlines that cause "gaps" in reading their notes and later in their transcripts.

To reduce the number of "gaps" caused by poor penmanship, the teacher should: (a) take advantage of the numerous opportunities as they arise to review, recall, reinforce, and refine proper joinings, slant, proportion, "humps" [gay-r, r-gay], "flats" [kr, rk, gay-l, l-gay], at the chalkboard and at students' workstations; (b) spend a few minutes weekly on specific penmanship drills; (c) read and transcribe current and "cold" homework assignments to impress upon students the need for transcribable notes.

6. WORD LISTS. The following three acceptable teaching practices justify the use of word lists as a teaching/learning device: (a) daily repetitive dictation of the shorthand alphabet, (b) mastery of brief forms, (c) previews and postviews of dictation material.

Instant symbol recall is dictation power. The more transcribable symbols a student can write instantly, the better are the student's chances for increasing the production of mailable transcripts.

Word lists can be used successfully in at least these four situations:

A. To introduce new principles.
B. To build "word families" or "evolution drills" on a new principle to review, recall, reinforce, and refine previously taught principles without taking any measurable time away from the presentation of a new principle.
C. To make distinctions between sounds and their symbols

(e.g., the troublesome *o oo, oi, ow, eu; rd/ld* and other blends).

D. To review, recall, reinforce, and refine any principle as the need arises.

7. AN ACCURATE OUTLINE. John Robert Gregg's principle "When in doubt, write it out" recognizes that insistence on dictionary outlines under dictation stress causes "gaps" in dictation, consequently, in the transcript.

This principle "When in doubt . . ." should be recognized early in theory, not held until students get well along into dictation and transcription, when they will apply it carelessly because of lack of instruction and practice.

An "accurate" outline that is not a dictionary outline is simply one that falls within the framework of: (a) correct shorthand symbols and (b) correct writing of the alphabetic symbols (e.g., proportion, slant, size of vowels—not necessarily, however, proper joinings or inclusion/exclusion of vowels). A reliable test: If an outline can be read in isolation, it meets "When in doubt . . . ." Credit for "When in doubt . . ." early in the course reduces student anxieties of having to write only dictionary outlines, builds student confidence in ability to construct transcribable outlines under dictation stress, and helps to "get something down [that is transcribable]" for everything.

8. TESTING. To provide sufficient time for knowledge to take hold, the first test should be administered at a time when students are at a high peak of readiness for testing on that material. For example, after presenting the first 5 lessons through written homework/dictation/transcription, administer the first theory test on Lessons 1–5.

The test itself should consist of three parts: (a) dictation of English words covering the principles, to be taken in shorthand; (b) transcription of two or three plates from those assigned as homework preparation [eventually these plates should also be dictated for transcription]; (c) transcription of (a) and (b) when dictated.

Delaying theory tests until knowledge and skills have had a chance to take hold through thorough repetitive coverage over 15 lessons gives students an opportunity for a respectable grade, and good test scores not only save face among peers but they are also good motivators to continue shorthand.

Word tests are especially useful if they are (a) limited to certain

principles; (b) kept short [10–20 words]; (c) dictated at a comfortable, "cruising" rate, initially at 10–15 wam, then gradually increased [words dictated in isolation are more difficult to take than in connected matter]; (d) transcribed under time, preferably when "cold" to reduce recall; (e) evaluated on the basis of "accurate" outlines.

Word tests help: (a) increase recall ability; (b) reinforce and refine principles; (c) increase shorthand vocabulary; (d) develop student confidence in ability to construct transcribable symbols for unfamiliar words when taking dictation.

9. TRANSCRIPTION READINESS. Transcription in itself is not a simple activity; instead, it is made up of an estimated 61 percent non-typing activities and 39 percent typing activities (Jester, 1959). To evolve these individual activities into a whole requires that transcription readiness be started with the first day of shorthand by linking shorthand symbols with the decisions that have to be made: (a) in choices of spelling and meaning of words and (b) in complete thoughts in reading and transcribing.

Transcription readiness should be started as early as Lesson 11 with the introduction of dictation and transcription (preferably at the typewriter) of the written homework on Lessons 1–5. (Remember, written homework in theory for dictation/transcription is always 10 lessons back from the presentation lesson when students are better able to write transcribable outlines for dictation/transcription.)

10. TEACHER-PREPARED MATERIALS. There is little doubt that "these kids today can't handle the language skills," a situation that some people facetiously describe as "Every American child should have a second language—preferably English."

The textbook reminders and the accompanying workbooks are especially designed to change "these kids who can't . . ." into "people who can" perform in the language skills that meet commercially acceptable standards. Regardless of these aids, however, there will be a need for teacher-prepared materials to meet special student needs, especially in the areas of spelling and punctuation.

These teacher-prepared materials in the language arts should always be written in shorthand, not English. Material designed, for example, to improve the correct use of *stationary/stationery* or "A semi-colon is used . . ." is best taught through shorthand copy. There seems to be little transfer from printed English to transcribing symbols employing similar knowledge.

11. OFFICE DICTATION. No executive gives timed dictation; in fact, the correspondence secretary really controls the executive's rate of dictation; therefore, dictation for transcription (except dictation tests) should be office style—given: (a) at an uneven rate and (b) well below the class dictation norm for students to encounter little speed difficulty except for brief spurts. There should be no content errors, however. (Dictation for transcription that contains content errors for editing/proofing skill development should be a major part of the secretarial practice course, not the transcription course.)

Office dictation adds office environment realism and permits more students to benefit from the daily transcription experiences, even those who always seem to "get almost all the [timed] dictation, except . . . ."

12. LONGHAND: A NO-NO? Examination of dictation notebooks of employed correspondence secretaries shows sprinkled longhand cues or reminders throughout the pages, put in either while taking the dictation or while editing the dictation for transcription. Such cues include, among any number of others, longhand words for unfamiliar shorthand outlines, unusual spellings of names, circled punctuation, circled *'s* or *s'* above a possessive symbol and subject-verb agreement.

13. READING BACK DICTATION. The teacher, using speed thrusts of 60–65–70 wam, working for 65 wam, for example, should concentrate reading back on the drop-back rates of 60 wam and 65 wam. When it becomes evident that most of the class can handle these two rates with only some help, it's time to move on, for as Newhouse often says, " A speed too long maintained becomes a speed sustained [fixed]."[2]

14. THE *STENGUIDE*. Unlike the employed correspondence secretary, who knows the vocabulary of the business, students do not have an opportunity beforehand to read the mail that is to be answered; they do not have access to the mail after dictation; and they do not have access to previous correspondence in a file. The employed correspondence secretary also enjoys the additional advantage of knowing that an occasional "blooper" is more likely to be overlooked by the executive than by the teacher who is constantly striving to make the student better. A simulation that acquaints students with the vocabulary of the correspondence to be dictated is one identified as *STENGUIDE*.[3]

The *STENGUIDE* is a two-part, teacher-prepared, homework

assignment developed from a "cluster" of *related material* selected for dictation/transcription in the following class sessions. Part 1 previews whatever is likely to be a language stumbling block for some students: punctuation, number expressions, and quotes. Part 2 previews word discrimination, possible spelling "demons," and vocabulary to be written in shorthand by the student for practice.

The *STENGUIDE*: (a) takes the student out of the information vacuum; (b) gives him/her a positive mind-set for the dictation/transcription challenge; (c) makes homework more purposeful and more meaningful with next class application; (d) increases shorthand vocabulary and knowledge of language arts; (e) reduces non-transcription time; (f) lessens stress and tension during dictation/transcription; (g) is a strong motivator to work individually on weaknesses.

For the teacher, the *STENGUIDE*: (a) develops a closer teacher-student working relationship; (b) provides more class time for teaching/learning, since previewing is done as homework; (c) reduces the number of class questions/problems, giving the teacher more time for individual teaching at each student's work station; (d) reduces paper checking.

Over a period of a year or so, the teacher can easily design a dictation book of related, but not technical, letters and other materials (teachers are too "letter happy" in their choice of material) with accompanying *STENGUIDES* ranging in difficulty from introductory easy material to terminal average and above-average material.

15. SPEED PROGRESSION TESTS. Office dictation alone in the classroom is not sufficient for employment purposes. Speed development—limited as it may be for different students—and the periodic speed progression tests [e.g., 60-wam test, transcribed within a time frame and error tolerance] must be retained in the overall program for: (a) appraising of student progress; (b) building student ability to take dictation commensurate with ability; (c) preparing students for pre-employment tests.

One device that motivates and recognizes student improvement for 3-minute dictation tests is a graduated grading scale based on the number of errors made: 0–4, A; 5–6, B; 7–8, C; 9–10, D. If a student, for example, passes the test with a *D* the first time, the grade is changed to a *C* on a second passing, *B* on the third passing, *A* on the fourth passing, and for any succeeding *A*, one mailable transcript.

A student's final grade should not be based totally on attaining a given rate (e.g., 100-wam test). The final grade should reflect not only mailable work but also to some degree the ability to take timed dictation. To quote Madeline Strony: "Not everyone can be a 'concertmaster,' and business needs 'secondfiddlers' as well as 'concertmasters.' "[4]

16. VERBATIM TRANSCRIPTS. Executives are well-informed people in their particular field of expertise, paid to think, to plan, to manage, and to make decisions. Very few, however, can be expected to dictate errorless copy. Therefore, the responsibility of turning out a finished product that is worthy of the executive's signature and the reader's respect, is placed on the shoulders of the correspondence secretary.

Executives often dictate to their own professional kind, in which case they often take content liberties. Such liberties must be respected in a verbatim transcript, whether or not textbook correct.

To require verbatim transcripts "because business accepts only perfect work" is unrealistic. To require verbatim transcripts to attain classroom standards higher than those in business is a worthy goal but also unrealistic. Such requirements leave no leeway for the student to use judgment in filling in dictation "gaps" or to make changes or corrections so that there is no relevant change from the intent of the executive. The skills of the educated speaker and writer should be held up as a goal, but some provision must be made for sometimes accepting less than verbatim or textbook work.

17. MAILABILITY STANDARDS. From an examination of hundreds of copies of office correspondence, Brendel (1978) discovered that standards of mailability of executives do not really match those of teachers. In fact, some rules in number expressions, punctuation, and word division are often ignored, with little, if any, effect on the intent of the message.

To judge mailability based on standards that more nearly align themselves with business practices, the teacher needs only to determine whether a document meets the C-qualities of practical, effective communication. If "Yes," mailable; if "No," unmailable.

Students, however, cannot be expected to produce mailable transcripts until their typing and non-typing activities have had a chance to evolve into a smooth operation. This evolvement is basically a progression through three cycles for which separate

grading plans on a graduated scale of difficulty can be spread over any school's marking periods.

To illustrate: the student, given X number of letters, office dictation, 80–120 words in length, will be able to produce in a period of time not to exceed X minutes:

Grade	First Cycle			Second Cycle			Third Cycle		
	Mailable		Rewrites	Mailable		Corrected*	Mailable		MIE**
A	xx	including	xx	xx	including	xx	xx	including	xx
B	xx	including	xx	xx	including	xx	xx	including	xx
C	xx	including	xx	xx	including	xx	xx	including	xx
D	xx	including	xx	xx	including	xx	xx	including	xx

* Limited to 2–3 errors each letter.
** Mailable in emergency[5]
The numbers (xx) in each cycle are teacher determined according to level of instruction and number of dictation takes.

Cycle 1 recognizes that, in any new learning experience of evolving skills and knowledge, such experience may have to be repeated several times for gradual grasping of what is correct. For a student placed in the new experience of transcription production, the opportunities to redo *a limited number* of unmailable transcripts for credit offers two impacts: (a) a motivation that comes from teacher recognition of what is done correctly (teachers are often guilty of urging students to do better without giving them credit for what they already know) and (b) reinforcement of correct learning by typing correctly the incorrect transcripts (the number and kinds of errors to be determined by the teacher in each of the three cycles).

Cycle 2 recognizes that every correspondence secretary, at some time, has to correct an occasional error detected by someone else. Therefore, standards in this cycle are more demanding with teacher acceptance of *a limited number* of corrected (instead of rewritten) transcripts for credit, yet retaining the same impact as when rewritten transcripts were accepted for credit: motivation and reinforcement of correct learnings.

Cycle 3 recognizes that all work in an office is not of equal value and that office standards are not so inflexible that they are never bent in special situations or emergencies. Acceptance of an *occasional* mailable in emergency (MIE) transcript does not lower the terminal goal of producing only mailable transcripts on first attempts, but it does provide some leeway for the teacher

to accept a "tongue-in-cheek" transcript for whatever reason (e.g., to motivate a student who is in a "slump").

18. EXECUTIVE ACCEPTABILITY. Executives rarely read transcripts with the same expertise as the teacher, and the acceptability level is often influenced by circumstances. A letter may be signed at 5 p.m. that would not have been signed at 10 a.m.; an MIE letter may be signed at 5 p.m. with handwritten comments or corrections; handwritten fill-ins or corrections may be made on copies received at 2 p.m. for a 2:30 p.m. emergency conference.

19. EDITING AND PROOFREADING. Such preachments as "Read over your notes before transcribing" and "Proofread carefully" do not improve editing and proofreading skills and knowledge. Such preachments should be replaced with "*Edit* your notes . . .; *proofread* your transcripts . . ." with each activity—editing and proofreading—fully understood by the students: the 'what-for's" and the "how-to's."

Editing, the process of reading dictated or written material with the idea of improving the quality BEFORE it is put into production, involves correcting, verifying, adapting, and refining (such as spelling, language structure, facts, intent, and number expressions) to produce transcripts that meet the C-qualities of practical, effective communication.

A thorough job of editing requires the student to have a knowledge of: (a) how to use and interpret the revision symbols and marks, (b) the causes of poor editing, and (c) the critical areas of editing.

Proofreading, the FINAL stage of the production task, is the process of reading the completed task with the idea of finding errors, confirming the technical skills, and reconfirming the editing preliminaries.

A thorough job of proofreading requires the student to have a knowledge of: (a) the causes of poor proofreading, (b) the orderly procedures for proofreading [paper-bail and copyholder-proofreader methods], (c) the error-prone areas, and (d) the proper methods of making corrections.

20. INSIDE ADDRESSES, SALUTATIONS, CLOSINGS. Executives do not generally dictate inside addresses, since the correspondence secretary has access to the information, and they may or may not dictate salutations and closings.

A simple office simulation is to hand each student a duplicated list of 50 names of companies and individuals (titles of respect omitted) with addresses. For transcription, the teacher dictates only the name of the addressee, leaving addresses, proper titles of respect, salutations, and closings to the student.

21. MEASURING PRODUCTION. Net-production-words-per-minute (npwm) has really little or no relevance to production work. A more realistic measuring tool, one used widely in business as a measure of word processing production, is the line-count-per-minute (lpm). On occasion, the teacher can use the lpm method to add office-environment realism to the class and, at the same time, to give the student a better understanding of job performance. To use this method, the teacher: (a) dictates a sufficient number of letters that cannot possibly be transcribed within a specified time frame and (b) calls time with instructions to the students to evaluate their production, using the lpm method (Johnson, 1982).

22. OFF SEAT, ON FEET, COVERING BEAT. There is general consensus that one of the best teaching techniques is "to nip in the bud" any negative student responses. This "nipping" is best achieved by the classroom teacher who is "off seat, on feet, covering beat" preventing incorrect responses from being reinforced through writing or typing by on-the-spot teaching at the student's workstation. This "off seat, on feet, covering beat": (a) avoids reinforcement of incorrect responses in the mind with the passage of time (overnight, weekend, vacation) and (b) reduces the number of times such negative responses have to be highlighted via the "red-pencil route."

For the student of the teacher "off seat . . . ," there are these positive reactions: (a) an atmosphere of teaching/learning togetherness, (b) preventive rather than corrective teaching, (c) instruction available on how to help oneself when experiencing difficulty, (d) elimination of traffic flow to and from instructor's desk with resulting interruptions and confusion.

For the teacher who is "off seat . . . ," there are these positive results: (a) a sharpened awareness of each student's weaknesses, (b) a noticeable decrease in paper checking, (c) less planning for corrective teaching, (d) greater gratification with return of more acceptable transcripts, (e) less "bad mouthing" of shorthand by disillusioned or discouraged students.

The information age is here with all its electronic technology for storing, retrieving, and transmitting, but by no means has it sounded the death knell for shorthand. In fact, meeting the pressing demand for skilled correspondence workers with shorthand skills is making those skills that much more marketable.

To prepare more students with these marketable skills, it behooves every shorthand teacher to take regular stock to determine: (a) if the daily teaching and the end-goal of shorthand are compatible; (b) if shorthand is being taught as an exact science, thus sowing the seeds for students to drop out and "bad mouth" shorthand; (c) if teacher acceptability levels are educationally progressive so as to be motivational and attainable from the earliest to the terminal stages of the course; (d) if shorthand and office environment simulation are working partners within the constraints of pedagogical realities.

FOOTNOTES

[1]The term *mailable transcript* refers to an originator's document (memo, letter, report) that meets the C-qualities of effective, practical correspondence—correct, clear, complete, courteous, considerate, concise, coherent, conversational—prepared for transmission either within or outside the organizational confines.

[2]A psychological statement often quoted by Howard J. Newhouse, President Emeritus, The Berkeley Schools (New York and New Jersey).

[3]The term *Stenguide* is one coined by the author.

[4]The terms *concertmasters* and *secondfiddlers* are those of Madeline Strony, former Professor of Business Education, California State University, Los Angeles.

[5]The term *MIE* (Mailable in Emergency) is that of Irene Schlinder, Mount Vernon High School, Mount Vernon, New York.

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Organizing the Shorthand Tape and Tape Library

Bonnie Roe White

MOST BUSINESS TEACHERS would agree that the word "organization" is the byword of the typical business teacher. Business teachers go through their days handling various subject matter, student skill levels, teaching strategies, materials, and equipment. Indeed, the *quality* of instruction may depend, in large part, on the teacher's ability to organize. Most shorthand teachers are acutely aware of this mediating factor.

The effective use of instructional aids, such as the shorthand tape, is a valuable organizational element for the shorthand teacher. When used appropriately, shorthand tapes can expand a teacher's ability to meet students' individual needs. Although shorthand tapes should never become a substitute for teaching, their proper use frees the teacher to give individual and small-group assistance.

The purpose of this article is to present a procedure for planning and preparing shorthand tapes and for developing a shorthand tape library.

The Shorthand Tape

Tape usage in the shorthand classroom may be grouped into four functions: instruction, speedbuilding, transcription, and assessment. Speedbuilding is one of the most prominent uses of the shorthand tape. Procedures for organizing the speedbuilding tape are described in the remainder of this section; however, many of these procedures apply to all tape functions.

The speedbuilding tape is designed to help students achieve higher note-taking rates. Speedbuilding tapes are used after shorthand theory is completed; "new" theory is not introduced. The tape contains dictation presented according to a preselected speedbuilding plan. Generally, the speedbuilding plan moves the

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student 20 to 40 words a minute (wam) higher than a designated three- or five-minute writing level. Selected words and phrases are previewed and/or postviewed according to the chosen speedbuilding plan.

Commercially prepared speedbuilding tapes may be purchased, or teachers may prepare their own speedbuilding tapes. If a teacher chooses to prepare a tape, a variety of speedbuilding plans is available. See Gallion (1980, 12–22); Russon (1968, 25–33); and VanHuss, Lambrecht, and Christensen (1980, 67–85) for descriptions and procedures.

Organizing the Speedbuilding Tape

A file folder should be made for each shorthand tape. As the teacher develops the tape, certain items will be placed in the folder such as: tape profile sheet; copy of the dictation material marked for dictation; content control worksheets and/or printouts; and where appropriate, a copy of permission to reproduce copyrighted materials.

Once the speedbuilding plan has been chosen and the dictation material selected or developed, the teacher is ready to organize the tape. A tape profile worksheet, similar to the one in Figure 1, can facilitate tape planning and is flexible enough to accommodate various speedbuilding plans. Completion of the tape profile is a major step in the effective organization of a tape; the completed profile sheet becomes the tape's dictation "blueprint."

Figure 1. Tape Profile Worksheet

SHORTHAND SPEEDBUILDING TAPE PROFILE

Tape No. _____
Speed Range _____
Speedbuilding Plan _____

Content Description _____
Content Source _____
Content Control:
S.I. _____
% Abbreviated Forms _____
% High Freq. Words _____
Other _____

■ Dictation Speed
● Preview/Postview
▲ Instructions

TIME ALLOCATION DIAGRAM	Step I Time Needed	Step II Time Left	Step III Counter Start
(Leader; Tape Identification; Instructions)			
Speedbuilding Plan:			

Comments: _____

Developing a Tape Profile

Figure 2 depicts the tape profile of a teacher-developed tape; however, the teacher can prepare tape profiles of purchased tapes as well. With a purchased tape, the teacher does not have control over the content selection, content control, preview/postview times, instructions, and modifications to a speedbuilding plan; nevertheless, the profile sheet can display the tape's dictation pattern and thereby provide an instant visual format of the tape.

Figure 2. Completed Shorthand Speedbuilding Tape Profile

SHORTHAND SPEEDBUILDING TAPE PROFILE

Tape No. 109A: SP60-80(MP-3/2/5-70)
Speed Range 60-70-80
Speedbuilding Plan Manila Plan (modified)

Content Description Letter
Content Source Teacher-developed
Content Control:
S.I. 137
% Abbreviated Forms 49%
% High Freq. Words 85%
Other

● Dictation Speed
● Preview/Postview
▲ Instructions

TIME ALLOCATION DIAGRAM	Step I Time Needed	Step II Time Left	Step III Counter Start
(Leader; Tape Identification; Instructions)	00:20	29:40	000
Speedbuilding Plan:			
CYCLE I: Pre 60 (15") Post 70 (1' 15") Post 80 (1' 10") Post (1' 10")	03:50	25:50	004
CYCLE II: Pre 60 (15") Post 70 (1' 15") Post 80 (1' 10") Post (1' 10")	03:50	22:00	047
CYCLE III: Pre 60 (15") Post 70 (1' 15") Post 80 (1' 10") Post (1' 10")	03:50	18:10	094
3-MINUTE DICTATION: (70) Exit (10") I II III (1' 1' 1')	03:10	15:00	144
CYCLE IV: Pre 60 (15") Post 70 (1' 15") Post 80 (1' 10") Post (1' 10")	03:50	11:10	188
CYCLE V: Pre 60 (15") Post 70 (1' 15") Post 80 (1' 10") Post (1' 10")	03:50	7:20	245
2-MINUTE DICTATION: (70) Exit (10") IV V (1' 1')	02:10	5:10	308
3-MINUTE DICTATION: (70) Exit (10") I II III IV V (1' 1' 1' 1' 1')	05:10	-0-	344 478
(Tape End Statement)			

Comments:

The identification elements (tape number, speed range, speedbuilding plan, content description, content source, and content controls), dictation diagram pattern, and time allocations constitute the tape profile. The remainder of this section details the procedures used to complete the tape profile in Figure 2.

Most teachers develop their own *tape numbering* systems.* Whatever system is developed, it should be simple enough for students and faculty to understand; it should be expandable; and the numbering code should appear on the tape cassette or reel, cassette container or reel storage box, file folder, and tape profile sheet. The *Speedbuilding Plan* identifies the dictation pattern such as the Minute Plan or the Stair-Step Plan; the *speed range* indicates the dictation rates. The *content description* identifies the dictation topic; the *content source* identifies the reference or source of the material.

Content controls help identify the difficulty level of the dictation material. Forms of content or copy control include SI (syllabic intensity); percent of abbreviated forms (primarily memory forms and their derivatives); and percent of high frequency words. (See Uthe, 1966, and Wedell, 1972, for further discussions of copy control.) Control factors permit the teacher to evaluate content difficulty against a predetermined scale. For example, students should not practice on less difficult materials and then be tested on material of greater difficulty.

As shown in Figure 2, the next phase of the tape profile is to determine the time requirements for the leader, tape identification, student instructions, speedbuilding plan, and the culminating dictation period(s):

Step I. To avoid losing words at the beginning of the tape, run a few seconds of blank tape before making any statements. Written tape identification and instruction statements will help the dictator avoid hesitations when dictating. The following statement is made at the beginning of the tape profiled in Figure 2:

*As shown in Figure 2, 109A:SP60-80 (MP-3/2/5/-70) where 109A is the file location for the tape; "109" is the designated number for the 60 speed level; "A" is the first tape in that speed designation.

SP60-80 indicates a *speedbuilding* tape for students working to pass 60 wpm with a speed range of 60-80.

(MP-3/2/5/-70) indicates the *Minute Plan* is used with culminating three-, two-, and five-minute dictation periods at 70 wam.

> Tape #109A for students working at 60 words a minute using the Minute Plan with a speed range of 60–80 words. (02 second pause) You will be given 15 seconds to preview the coming minute's dictation. Write the outlines as shown on the preview sheet for that minute. After the dictation, check and rewrite any needed outlines before the dictation proceeds to a higher level.

The modified Minute Plan shown in Figure 2 includes two-, three-, and five-minute dictation periods. This dictation plan can be accomplished in a 30-minute tape only with the organized approach afforded by the profile sheet and detailed review of the dictation materials prior to the taping. The three dictation periods accommodate students at different stages of their skill development and, accordingly, offer multiple use of a single 30-minute tape. Unless limited storage space and blank tapes are available, multiple use of speedbuilding tapes may prove necessary.

After the dictation pattern has been established, the preview/postview times should be considered. The preview/postview schedule presented in Figure 2 works well at the collegiate level; for the high school level, preview/postview times could be extended if necessary. Tapes often have extra time beyond the stated time limits; therefore, if a full tape is planned, the entire blank tape should be run to determine the exact time available.

Step II. As each cycle is completed, the total time remaining on the tape is calculated. Since Steps I and II are completed prior to the actual dictation of the tape, Step II becomes a check on the cycle time needed and verifies the tape usage. This step may be omitted, however, if a full tape is not planned.

Step III. Efficient dictation procedures are critical to the effective use of tape time. Marked dictation materials, tape identification and direction statements, and simple statements identifying the preview ("Write the outlines for Minute X.") and postview ("Review needed outlines.") periods should be reviewed and sequenced for dictation. When taping is completed, identify the end of the tape ("End of dictation for Tape XXX.").

Whenever possible, dictate on recorders that have counters. A counter recorder enables the tape to be advanced rapidly to different starting points and allows multiple use of a single tape. As shown in Figure 2, the counter figure is recorded at the *start* of each cycle. Until one becomes accustomed to dictating on a tight schedule, frequent stops may be necessary. With practice, however, an entire tape can be dictated fluently and the counter figures recorded with minimal stops.

An additional benefit of the tape profile is that students can be made aware of the dictation procedure and/or the speed-building plan by viewing a copy of the tape profile. Likewise, students should have access to preview/postview sheets for study prior to using the tape. Two preview/postview formats are commonly used: an alphabetic listing of selected outlines or a listing of the outlines as they occur within each segment's dictation.

Tape Usage Guidelines

General guidelines apply to the use of shorthand tapes, whether developed or procured:

1. Prepare a separate file folder and a tape profile sheet for each tape. Each folder will contain such items as a copy of the dictation materials, content control worksheets or printouts, permission to reproduce copyrighted materials, preview/postview masters, and the tape profile.
2. Dictate or duplicate tapes on recorders using electrical power rather than battery power. If an electrical adapter is not available, check the battery strength before dictating. Students, likewise, should be cautioned to check the battery strength of their personal recorders if they use tapes as part of their homework assignments.
3. Check the quality of each tape as it is used. Tapes that become fuzzy or scratchy should be replaced. Dictating a tape the second time is a much easier task if a file (containing the tape profile and dictation copy) has been maintained on the tape. Replacement policies for commercially prepared tapes should be reviewed before purchasing the tapes.
4. Learn how to make simple repairs on the tapes such as reattaching the tape if the end comes loose or splicing a broken tape.
5. Return tapes immediately to their designated storage areas. If the tape coding system identifies the filing order (see Figure 2), the tape can be filed easily by students or teachers.

The Shorthand Tape Library

Developing a shorthand library takes time and patience; however, if the teacher or departmental staff uses an organized approach, a shorthand library will gradually develop that can provide valuable instructional support and flexibility for the teacher(s).

A master list of all tapes in each functional category will serve as an organizational aid. The master list provides a guideline to

filling in gaps of needed tapes and to avoid "overstocking" other tapes.

Specific tape functions (instruction, speedbuilding, transcription, and assessment) will be reviewed briefly in the remainder of this section.

Instructional Tapes

Instructional tapes may be commercially prepared or teacher developed to reinforce and/or introduce shorthand components. Commercially prepared tapes often correspond to a specific lesson in the shorthand textbook. Theory and memory forms are presented from the lesson followed by dictation of selected contextual materials. Instructional tapes are sequenced so that the speed levels increase gradually, that is, five to ten words a minute each week.

If the teacher purchases instructional tapes, the dictation speeds are predetermined. If the teacher prepares the tapes, the teacher's knowledge of students' needs will help determine the speed levels. In either situation, the teacher should consider using at least two tapes for each lesson (a higher-speed track and a lower-speed track) dictated about twenty words apart. Individual differences appear early in shorthand skill development, and the dual tape approach can better meet these needs. Often the higher-speed tapes can be used again as an additional review cycle for some students.

In addition to lesson-related tapes, the teacher can develop specific instructional tapes for such activities as: character proportion practice; theory and/or memory form review; and specialized vocabulary.

Speedbuilding Tapes

Frequently, the speedbuilding tapes are the first to be developed in a shorthand tape library; in fact, speedbuilding tapes may represent the major portion of the library. Often the teacher realizes the need for additional speed levels and begins to develop or purchase tapes to meet this need. The speed requirements of the students at that time may determine the teacher's starting point.

By using speedbuilding tapes and the multiple-channel laboratory or tape recorders with multiple-listening stations, the teacher can accommodate several dictation rates simultaneously. In addition to classroom activity, the speedbuilding tape may be assigned as homework.

As some speedbuilding plans are more appropriate at different levels of the student's skill development, teachers should be thoroughly familiar with the various speedbuilding plans and incorporate these plans accordingly into their tape libraries.

Transcription Tapes

Transcription tapes focus on the completion of "mailable" or "usable" products. As such, students should be directed to work with tapes 10 to 20 wpm slower than their speedbuilding base rates. Students should be transcribing from easily written shorthand notes.

Initially, simple exercises can be presented on tapes with students receiving proofing sheets at the completion of the exercise. For example, pretranscription exercises dictated on tapes could include sentences reviewing homonyms. A series of similar exercises could provide a review of punctuation rules and word usage.

Transcription instruction proceeds from the simple to the complex; likewise, transcription tapes can become progressively more complex. Students can advance from transcribing simple paragraphs, to transcribing short letters in one letter style, to transcribing letters of various lengths and different letter styles.

Assessment Tapes

Assessment tapes are of two general categories: student self-check tapes and testing tapes. Unless procedures exist to control copies of students' shorthand notes and typed transcripts, the teacher may prefer to store testing tapes away from free student access. Self-check tapes should be of the same difficulty as the testing tapes, however, for students to gauge their progress accurately.

Self-check and testing tapes can be developed for the basic shorthand instruction, speedbuilding, and transcription functions described in the previous sections. The use of assessment tapes in the shorthand class allows more than one activity and/or speed to be dictated at the same time. A primary advantage of the assessment tape is that dictation on the tape does not vary; thus, if the tape is dictated correctly, the tape is repeatedly accurate.

Recommendations

In many methods classes, the preservice teacher develops shorthand materials, marks the materials for dictation, and practices the dictation of various speedbuilding plans. A logical extension

of this exercise is to have each preservice teacher develop a shorthand tape for one of the four major tape functions along with the preview/postview/confirmation sheets and the tape profile. After the supervising teacher has checked each tape, students can exchange and duplicate tapes. This procedure would provide preservice teachers with a pool of available tapes at the beginning of their teaching careers. Tapes can be a considerable aid to the teacher when used appropriately; likewise, tapes become a medium to help extend the student's skill development.

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A Sweet Method for Teaching the Prepaid Expense Adjustment

Charles J. Hamed

ADJUSTING ENTRIES often represent a difficult area for high school students; an area that presents special problems is prepaid expenses. The purpose of this article is to share with you the usefulness of a candy bar in the teaching of prepaid expenses. By using this method, students should have an easier time mastering the concepts and also have fun learning them.

After you have presented prepaid expenses, such as insurance and supplies, and have illustrated the adjusting entries involved, you can use a common candy bar to dramatize the asset-expense relationship of any prepaid item. Here are the steps recommended for your consideration:

1. Hold up a favorite candy bar of yours and let the class know what you paid for it. Make this entry on the chalkboard or overhead projector transparency using T accounts:

Candy Bar	
.35	

Cash	
	.35

2. Tell your students that the candy bar is a prepaid expense, similar to string and typing paper debited to Supplies. Unwrap the candy, and take a bite of it; the piece you eat represents one-fifth of the candy bar. Inform the group that it is now the end of the accounting period, and adjustments are to be made. Place the adjusting entry on the board or transparency (the letter A stands for adjustment):

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Candy Bar Expense			
A	.07		

Candy Bar			
	.35	A	.07

Reinforce the point that the account Candy Bar is an asset and that the account Candy Bar Expense is an expense. Mention that one-fifth of the candy amounts to seven cents, and there is still 28 cents worth of candy unconsumed. The unused portion remains as an asset and appears on the balance sheet.

3. Make the closing entry for the candy consumed (C is used for closing):

Candy Bar Expense			
A.	.07	C	.07

Income Summary			
C	.07		

If you prefer, you can use a different color of chalk for adjusting and closing entries, rather than the letters A and C. Remind the students that the seven cents candy bar expense will appear on the income statement as one of the operating expenses.

4. Take two additional bites from the candy bar; your students should be eagerly watching you. Let them know it is now the end of the next accounting period, and an adjusting entry is to be made for the candy bar, along with all other prepaid items. While your T accounts remain on the chalkboard or screen, make this adjustment:

Candy Bar Expense			
A	.14		

Candy Bar			
	.35	A	.07
		A	.14

Ask the students why 14 cents was used for the amount of the adjusting entry; then ask them how much of the candy bar is still unconsumed. Stress that the remaining 14 cents is still an asset and appears on the balance sheet.

5. Make the closing entry for the candy consumed during this period:

Candy Bar Expense			
A	.14	C	.14

Income Summary			
C	.14		

Remind your class that the 14 cents expense will appear on the income statement for that particular period.

6. Eat the rest of the candy bar. Mention that it is now gone forever and cannot be retrieved, just like other consumable operating expenses, such as insurance, supplies, and rent. Call on a student to give you the adjusting entry for this new fiscal period:

Candy Bar Expense				Candy Bar			
A	.14			.35	A	.07
					A	.14
					A	.14

If you prefer, leave the figures in the Candy Bar Expense account from the other periods; double rule between accounting periods.

7. Make the closing entry:

Candy Bar Expense				Income Summary			
A	.14	C	.14	C	.14		

Be sure to note that the asset Candy Bar would not appear on the balance sheet, since there is nothing left of it.

8. You can wrap up this tasty example of prepaid expenses by noting that the 35 cents cost of the candy bar was spread over three fiscal periods since it took that long to use it up. You can use calendar dates in each step, if you prefer. If you do not want to actually eat the candy bar, an eager volunteer will gladly do it for you.

This visual "disappearing" of an asset clearly helps students see that any prepaid expense is actually part asset and part expense at one time. Stress that accountants need to know the portion unused of each prepaid expense whenever the books are to be closed. The asset portion, such as with prepaid supplies, is often determined by an actual physical count. *By using the candy bar as a prepaid expense prop, you should get sweet results with your students!*

Book Reviews

Alice M. Jacoby

IN SEARCH OF EXCELLENCE: LESSONS FROM AMERICA'S BEST-RUN COMPANIES. By Thomas J. Peters and Robert H. Waterman Jr. (New York: Harper & Row, 1982, 360 pages, diagrams, notes, and index, $19.95.)

THE ONE MINUTE MANAGER. By Kenneth Blanchard, Ph.D. and Spencer Johnson, M.D. (New York: Berkley Books, 1981, 111 pages, biographical notes, and acknowledgements.)

Business educators may discover themselves enjoying an indulgent chuckle as they read two current bestsellers on business management, *In Search of Excellence* and *The One Minute Manager*.

The authors of these books have sought to identify the "secrets" of effective business management. These "secrets" have a familiar ring for business teachers. They are the strategies that for years have been espoused in methods courses as means of eliciting desired behavior from students.

As teachers read these books and relate business situations to their own academic experiences, an outline for effective classroom management evolves. As the similarities between teacher-student and manager-employee relationships emerge, it becomes clear that human nature is the common factor in the management of both students and employees.

Business administration and business education can mutually benefit from the implications of research on both of these relationships.

In *The One Minute Manager*, the authors cite three practical management techniques: one-minute goal setting, one-minute praising, and one-minute reprimands—from a very human approach.

ALICE M. JACOBY is a business teacher at St. Francis De Sales High School, Columbus, OH.

> The One Minute Manager's symbol—a one minute readout from the face of a modern digital watch—is intended to remind each of us to take a minute out of our day to look into the faces of the people we manage. And to realize *they* are our most important resources (Blanchard and Johnson, 8).

Written in the format of a grade school reader, *The One Minute Manager* relates in allegorical style a young man's search for the key to becoming an effective manager. During his search, the young man discovers that there is more than one key involved in unlocking this "secret." In the story, the authors depict these keys as mottos shared by successful managers with the young man as he travels from interview to interview. Some of these mottos are as follows:

—PEOPLE WHO FEEL GOOD ABOUT THEMSELVES PRODUCE GOOD RESULTS
—HELP PEOPLE REACH THEIR FULL POTENTIAL
—CATCH THEM DOING SOMETHING RIGHT
—EVERYONE IS A POTENTIAL WINNER—SOME PEOPLE ARE DISGUISED AS LOSERS. DON'T LET THEIR APPEARANCES FOOL YOU.

By substituting the word "STUDENTS" for "PEOPLE" in these statements, educators will recognize immediately the self-esteem-building philosophy that is as effective for teachers to use as it is for managers.

In Search of Excellence is the result of a study of management techniques to discover common factors present in "excellent" companies (Peters and Waterman Jr., 19).

> The project showed, more clearly than could have been hoped for, that the excellent companies were, above all, brilliant on the basics. Tools didn't substitute for thinking. Intellect didn't overpower wisdom. Analysis didn't impede action. Rather, these companies worked hard to keep things simple in a complex world. They persisted. They insisted on top quality. They fawned on their customers. They listened to their employees and treated them like adults. They allowed their innovative product and service "champions" long tethers. They allowed some chaos in return for quick action and regular experimentation (Peters and Waterman, 13).

The authors list the ". . . eight attributes that emerged to characterize most nearly the distinction of the excellent, innovative

companies. . . " (Peters and Waterman, 13). It is interesting to note that although not all eight attributes were present or conspicuous to the same degree in all of the "excellent" companies studied, the authors do state that in every case at least a preponderance of the eight was clearly visible and quite distinctive (Peters and Waterman, 17). Listed below are these eight attributes and their possible implications for classroom management:

MANAGEMENT ATTRIBUTE	*EDUCATIONAL APPLICATION*
1. A bias for action	Keep the class moving at an exciting pace. Experiment; be innovative; try new methods. Involve the students in researching new ideas that come up in discussion.
2. Close to the customer	Listen to the students. Ask about their interests. Incorporate their interests in class presentations.
3. Autonomy and Entrepreneurship	Encourage classroom "champions." Help each student experience success. "Make sure you generate a reasonable number of mistakes" (Peters and Waterman, 14).
4. Productivity through people	Recognize each student as a "source of ideas" (Peters and Waterman, 15).
5. Hands-on, value driven	Sit with your students, work with your students, and talk with your students. Identify a philosophy of learning for each class and physically work with students in implementing this philosophy.
6. "Stick to the knitting"	Stay on the topic and subject; relate all discussions to specific objectives.
7. Simple form, lean staff	Keep classroom rules simple and consistent. Keep authority clearly defined and impartially enforced. Be approachable.
8. Simultaneous loose-tight properties	Encourage autonomy while exercising authority in "organized chaos." Accept the idea that at times the students will be involved in learning on their own—interacting in discussion and research.

Although educators may *know* these strategies for excellence in the classroom, both these books are powerful reinforcements of that knowledge. By recognizing specific human needs and responses, these authors create an awareness that can challenge

educators to consider the achievements that are possible when students and teachers cooperate in their mutual "search for excellence."

As they finish these books, business educators may discover that critical introspection has replaced their indulgent chuckles as they contemplate one of the admonitions of *The One Minute Manager*:

TAKE A MINUTE
LOOK AT YOUR GOALS
LOOK AT YOUR PERFORMANCE
SEE IF YOUR BEHAVIOR MATCHES YOUR GOALS

Pausing for a Bit of Nostalgia

Lorraine Ray

To Dr. Esther E. Anderson, former Professor of Business Education at The University of Toledo, who died April 30, 1983.

Dr. Anderson's "practical" techniques for teaching secretarial courses, especially typing, still work for me—14 years later. Two of the devices she created were: (1) the "mailable copy rate (MCR)" for evaluating production work and (2) the "tabulation typing drill" for improving speed and accuracy in typing numbers. These devices continue to be useful even as word processing dominates the business education "scene."

The effects of Dr. Anderson's dedication and sense of humanity are as long-lived as her teaching strategies. She had a knack for helping to build self-esteem in those of us who had difficulty doing it alone! The image she projected was that of a "down-to-earth," approachable person with a ready sense of humor. More than anything, she always encouraged me to write.

NOSTALGIA

Esther, even though this article is written in your memory, it's just as well you can't read it! It's about the end of the secure and "comfortable" era in business education that we shared.

I remember the day we all gathered 'round the desk in your office so you could demonstrate a "state-of-the-art" machine—the IBM Correcting Selectric. I thought it was the most marvelous invention I'd ever seen. Imagine not having to erase—WOW! Then, we returned to class to continue working on our IBM Model C's and our rotary calculators.

Now, less than two decades later, I'm being "attacked" by computers, word processors, and even robots! And I *thought* I

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was going to teach typing and shorthand the rest of my life! This is enough to bring on mid-life crisis! In the "golden oldie" days of teaching business education, I knew what I was talking about (most of the time). And, if I didn't, I could get expert advice from you or one of your contemporaries.

Who are the experts now? The machines—that's who! You want to learn how to operate a computer? Sit down, sign in, and the machine will tell you what to do. But, believe me, they leave something to be desired. If you give an incorrect code, do they care if you're frustrated and discouraged? No. They just sit there in all their smug sophistication and watch you suffer. Wouldn't it be nice if one would say, "Hey, you look a little tired today; let me give you a hand." Now, when someone comes up with a computer fully equipped with a "compassion" mode and a "sense of humor" software package, then and *only* then, will I believe that they're "user friendly!"

On a broader scale than education, the infiltration of computers also affects our leisure. Personally, I'm grateful for a childhood that did *not* include the playing of "Ms. Pacman" at an arcade. I'd rather think of myself as having been in the malt shop with David and Ricky Nelson.

In the meantime, I'll wallow in some occasional melancholia and dream of saying—just one more time—"throw your carriage!" But, I can't spend too much time dreaming of the past. 'Gotta get back to work—learning how to operate our new personal computer. So, Esther, in the language of our times, I will *END*, but never *DELETE*.

The Ohio Business Teachers Association
1983–1984

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Donna Smith Courtney
1983–1984 President

Greetings from your President

We are well into 1984. Is this as Orwell predicted in *1984*? It seems that "The Perfect Combination: Business Education + High Tech" is a very appropriate theme for our 1984 convention. Professional development of business teachers is more important than ever before. True, business teachers must continue to be artistic and skillful in teaching the basics; but we must also know how to integrate technology with the basics of business education. In addition, we must do our utmost to retain such business courses as Business Math, Consumer Math, Economics, Consumer Economics, Keyboarding, and Computer Literacy in the business department. If schools must cut back, we do not want it to be in business education.

As my year as president ends, I am pleased to report that all nine OBTA sectional groups have been activated. This strengthens our organization by providing accessible meetings for *all* members of OBTA. The work of the sectional chairpersons and their committees is greatly appreciated.

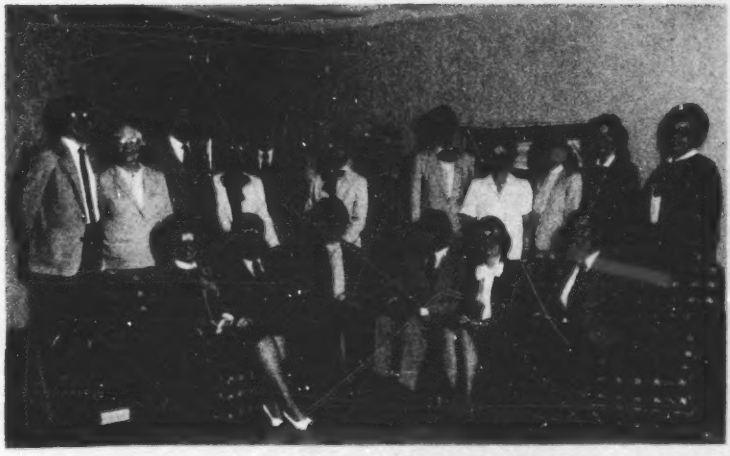
In response to our $1,000 donation to the building fund of NBEA, the Executive Director, O. J. Byrnside, Jr., wrote, "On behalf of the National Business Education Association, I want to express our sincere appreciation for the most generous contribution of the Ohio Business Teachers Association to our Building Fund. Your kind of response increases the possibility that we will be able to reach our goal and pay off our building debt by early next spring. Please convey to your members, officers, and Board of Directors our thanks for their outstanding support. Your Association's contribution is included on the list of donors being published in the January *Forum*, and it will also be added to the special plaque of major donors on display in the reception area of our National Center for Business Education."

As I leave the presidency, I want to thank you for having given me the opportunity of working with so many fine people. It takes approximately 10 years to go through the offices and Executive Board positions of OBTA. Not one year is wasted because of the many enrichening experiences all along the way. My year for the convention was last year in Dayton. There is no way I can ever thank the many people who assisted with it. Throughout my years as an officer, I have had so much support from all of you. I thank you. OBTA is an outstanding professional organization due to the hundreds of dedicated members, and it has been very rewarding to me to work with and for you.

Richard Gore
1983–1984 President-Elect

President-Elect's Message

Ohio business teachers have traditionally demonstrated national leadership in business education. This is primarily due to the professionalism of each classroom business teacher. It is important, therefore, that we continue this leadership as we encounter the challenges of the future, for these are exciting times. Reach out to your students and fellow business teachers. Encourage them to join you in your leadership role.



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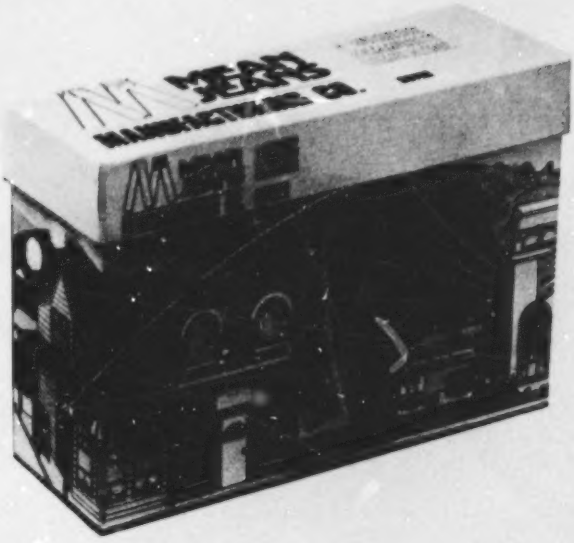

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